The Nation.

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The Week.

WHILE the absolute and relative volume of a harvest always exerts profound influence upon a community's prosperity, there are times when crop results become a peculiarly critical factor in the situation. That this year's anticipated harvest in the United States is of such a character, no one can doubt. It can never be affirmed with certainty how far the outcome of last year's corn harvest created or emphasized the trade depression. In the entire United States the season's corn yield footed up but 60 per cent. of the crop of 1891. In some States the result meant ruin. Iowa produced less than one-third its corn yield of 1893; Kansas had still less to show; Nebraska's farmers gathered hardly one-twelfth of their ordinary harvest. Since discontent is the child of penury, and since financial heresy is the certain political result of discontent, it is not strange that free silver coinage should have seemed, six months ago, to have absolutely captured Kansas and Nebraska. If this season had witnessed another deficient crop of 1,200,000,000 bushels or less, it might reasonably be doubted whether the Iowa conventions would have taken the stand they have for a sound currency. The results now so well assured are little short of providential.

No less than 80,000,000 bushels of marketable wheat overhung the market, in this country alone, when the panic of 1893 came on us. The sudden decline of fifteen cents a bushel was the simple consequence of "realizing" to protect outstanding debts and acquire actual money against emergency. The enormous world's production, after the price of wheat was thus fixed, steadily kept down the market, even below the panic level, until this year's returns proved that the farmer had sought out his own cure—had diversified his crops and cut down his acreage of wheat. The poor wheat crops in Europe, even on the diminished acreage, and the partial failure of our own winter-sown crop, have worked in the same direction. Last week the American "visible supply" was but 38,000,000 bushels, against 89,000,000 at the close of 1894. The decrease continues despite the fact that the Northwestern farmers, who suffered severely a year ago, are raising a bountiful "spring wheat" yield. Nature, in other words, may be said to have distributed her favors this year with a judicious hand, the enormous corn crop in particular promising to be the mainstay of our reviving trade prosperity.

Bland's Missouri convention was for Bland first and last, and only incidentally for 16-to-1 silver and down with a "panic-breeding currency," banks, and bonds. Bland was both kinds of chairman, temporary and permanent, Bland drafted the resolutions, and Bland announced his purpose to take charge of the party machinery, new created by himself, and run it for all it is worth in the interest of silver—meaning himself. It was a rather low-down trick on Senator Cockrell, and especially on Senator Vest, upon whose seat Bland has his eye firmly fixed. They walked most guilelessly into Bland's trap. He really packed the convention with his own followers, the so-called primaries being held almost without notice, and attended only, as in the case of the now absurd Illinois convention, by silverites, and then, assuming to speak for "the Democrats of Missouri," reorganized the State committee so as to make it his own tool and give him the inside track for the senatorship. It was as vulgar a piece of boss politics as ever was seen. We observe that Bland telegraphed his congratulations to Blackburn of Kentucky. This is intended, we suppose, to show how much better the Missouri way is than the Kentucky way. If you call a regular party convention and have the delegates elected in the usual way, you may get beaten. Bland's plan is much simpler—call a "snap" convention, keep your opponents out of the primaries, and you can resolve as you please for silver and endorse yourself for the Presidency, the Senatorship, or Examiner in Lunacy.

The overthrow of the free-silverites in the Iowa Democratic State convention is another staggering blow for that faction in all the other States. Even in Missouri it will have a strong influence. The result of the fight shows what can be done among intelligent people by intelligent work. In 1890 the Democrats of Iowa in their State convention went for free coinage with hardly a dissenting vote, the following resolution being part of the platform of that year:

> "We demand the free coinage of silver, and that it be made a legal tender for all debts, public and private, and denounce as unjust and dishonest the provision of the law recently enacted allowing parties to stipulate against payment in silver and silver certificates, thus setting up one standard of value for the poor man and the other for the rich man."

This senseless resolution was again passed in the following year. We call it senseless because the second half of it speaks of a law "recently enacted" which never was enacted at all, the right to stipulate for payment in any kind of money that the parties choose being a common-law right which existed anterior to the Constitution. But the resolutions of 1890 and 1891 are all rubbish now, the convention of July 7 having voted against the free-silverites by an overwhelming majority. The Des Moines *Leader* (Dem.) tells us that the party in the State is entirely satisfied with the national platform of 1892, which, whatever else it may mean, is not free coinage at 16 to 1 or on any basis which would land us on the silver standard.

The prospect of a new international conference to promote bimetallism grows fainter. A few days ago ex-Speaker Crisp was interviewed on the subject in London. He said that he could not discover that any interest was taken in the subject in Great Britain, and although he had been assured that the cause was gaining, the gain would be considered very slow in the United States. We have already adverted to the fact that although a general election has just taken place in England which fixes the government probably for seven years, not a word about bimetallism was heard on the hustings. The cause does not seem to be prospering in Germany any more than in England. Dr. Arendt (the German Bland) has become impatient at the slowness of the movement, and has issued a pamphlet attacking Director Koch of the Reichsbank as an ignoramus, unfit for his position. Dr. Koch replies that Arendt's pamphlet is unworthy of notice, but he adds that the holding of an international conference at Germany's invitation is further off than ever, and that not one important German State has declared in favor of bimetallism since the subject was formally submitted to them. This is a flat contradiction of Mr. Moreton Frewen's letter to the London *Times*, in which he said that Chancellor Hohenlohe had assured the silver men in the United States that a conference would soon be called.

The decision of Judge Goff in the South Carolina registration cases, dismissing the bill praying for an injunction, is a victory for the Tillman Government in the State, although it is yet possible that the Supreme Court of the United States may take a different view of the matter. Judge Goff's opinion states that he feels himself bound by the decision of the Circuit Court of Appeals to make this decision, but he does not conceal the fact that he believes it to be erroneous. The appellate court held that the plaintiffs, although deprived of their rights as citizens of the United States and of the State of South Carolina, had an adequate remedy at law, and that a bill in equity would, therefore, not lie. Judge Goff expresses his regret that the character of the remedy at law was not indicated, for he says that he cannot find any. But he goes further, and takes the position that as the United States courts are established for the purpose of determining controversies

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arising from conflicting provisions of State and federal constitutions and enactments, they should not so limit their action as to make it useless. It is vain for a court to say that there is an adequate remedy at law when the injury will be completed before the remedy can be applied, and when it is of an irreparable character. Between the decision of the Supreme Court of South Carolina holding that it cannot interfere with the registration act, and that of the United States appellate court, many citizens will undoubtedly be deprived of the suffrage. To say that they have their actions for damages is no sufficient reply to their complaints. It is the free exercise of the right that they demand, not compensation for being deprived of it. But as the case is likely to come before the Supreme Court, we shall doubtless soon have a final adjudication upon the important principles involved.

The announcement that the California State Labor Commissioner is ready with a petition to Congress, asking for the passage of a law to restrict the immigration of Japanese to this country, is not unexpected. The labor department of California is a part of the political machinery of the State, and that machinery is always on the side of "labor," in the sense of the labor demagogue. The number of Japanese immigrants to this country has increased in the last few years. In the Treasury statistics, our Asiatic emigrants are classified as coming from China and from "other Asia." The Chinese Immigration Act reduced the emigrants from that country, who numbered nearly 40,000 in 1882, to 10 in 1887. The immigrants from "other Asia," principally Japanese, who numbered 50 in 1882, increased to 2,732 in 1890, to 5,984 in 1892, and, probably owing to the business depression, declined to 3,304 in 1894. There are no complaints in California against the Japanese such as have been raised so largely against the Chinese, in regard to their mode of living, personal habits, etc. The trouble is that California requires a vast army of laborers to gather its crops, especially the fruit, the working season being short. Then it becomes a problem what to do with the unemployed. There is a dearth of labor at one season, a plethora at another. Because the Chinamen and Japanese can accommodate themselves to these circumstances, living most economically during the period of their non-employment, they have incurred the deadly hatred of white men, who think that, but for the Asiatics, the supply of employment would last the year round. We shall hear a great deal about the Japanese character in Congress in the immediate future.

One of the most impudent manifestations of the pension-grabbing spirit yet seen is in a recent act of the New York Legislature which authorizes towns to recompense the men who were drafted under the law of 1863 for their patriotic sacrifices, and provides that if the drafted men are no longer living, their heirs at law shall receive the compensation so long withheld from their gallant ancestors. In case the drafted patriot had raised the $300 which enabled him to purchase exemption from military duty by borrowing it, or had received it as a gift, the lender or the donor is to be compensated. If the drafted man did not purchase exemption, but went to the war, he is to get his $300, and, if he was killed in the war, his heirs are to have it. If the drafted man paid for a substitute, he is to have his money back; and, in every case, interest for the last thirty years is to be allowed. When it comes to honoring patriotism, the New York Legislature does not do things by halves. But the courts, unfortunately for the drafted patriots, are less liberal, and this act has just been held to be unconstitutional by Judge Brown. As to the money paid by a drafted man, Judge Brown asserts that the sole object of such payment was to escape the performance of a public service, and that it was an affair which concerned the drafted man alone. This is a terrible blow to the drafted men and their heirs. Three hundred dollars with interest since 1864 is a very comfortable sum of money, and would go far to sweeten the recollections of the trials and sufferings occasioned by having to send a substitute to the war or pay for exemption. But let not these patriots be cast down. All is not lost while honor remains. No court can tear the laurels from the heads of our drafted compatriots. The proud distinction of having suffered in pocket for their country will ever be theirs. The Legislature has shown its appreciation of their gallant services, although ineffectively, from a pecuniary point of view. But Congress may yet be appealed to. When the Republicans get power again, a more liberal spirit will be manifested in dealing with pensions, and the drafted men and their heirs may at last obtain the pecuniary recognition of their patriotism which an ungrateful country has so long denied them.

The cases of the persons accused of defrauding the State of New Jersey in various ways, as charged in the testimony brought out before the Senate committee last spring, will not be improved in the public view by the defence made by the first of them who has been brought to trial, Col. Van Cleef, whom the disclosures forced out of the office of Secretary of the State Board of Assessors. The indictment against him charged him with obtaining money for 15,000 maps which had never been furnished to the State. This was a very direct charge and capable of a very direct denial. Instead of making such a denial, however, his counsel put in no testimony at all in his behalf before the court, relying wholly on technicalities to destroy the effect of the indictment, such as an effort to show that the money did not pass directly from the State to Van Cleef, that Van Cleef did not receive from the contractors for the work the identical money which they were paid by the State, and that the matter of false pretence on Van Cleef's part could be disposed of by a confusion of dates. The Judge, in his charge to the jury, brushed all this defence aside as utterly frivolous. Experience has shown the difficulty of convicting a man with a political pull before a jury selected at a State capital, and Van Cleef's acquittal will occasion no surprise. But his trial will only confirm the public impression that the Senate investigation was timely, and that perhaps it might go considerably deeper.

We are gradually learning the other side of the Bannock Indian massacre—that is, the Indian side. The first thing of importance is, that there was no legal authority for arresting the Indians at all. The charge was that they were violating the game laws of Wyoming, the maximum penalty of which is a fine of $10 and three months' confinement in the county jail. But, in order to execute the law, somebody must be charged with an infraction of it, and a warrant must be issued by a magistrate for that particular person. The warrants in this case were issued in blank. Therefore the constable and his posse committed an assault when they arrested the Indians. They had no right to molest them. It follows that the killing was murder, and it is said that Col. Coppinger takes that view of it. Another fact of importance is, that the Indian who was killed was not running away, although he perhaps had the intention to do so. His horse's bridle was held by one of the posse at the time of the shooting. Of course, the Governor of Wyoming takes the frontier view of these things, and laments that people at the East should say hard things about the bloodthirsty constable and his posse. This is easily understood. These men have votes; the Indians have none.

Two great Socialist congresses are to be held in October, one for France, at Limoges, and the German one at Breslau. At present "the programme" to be submitted at each of these gatherings is being labored over by the leaders of Socialistic thought, and the results are far from harmonious or reassuring. An especial gloom rests upon the French Socialists just now owing to their distinct rebuff in the recent election of the "General Councils." These councils are very much like our State Legislatures, ruling the departments and electing Senators to the national Parliament. Out of some 1,500 members, the Socialists succeeded in electing just twelve in all France. This adjourns the millennium again. It also makes it harder than ever for the French Socialists to arrange a plan of campaign

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on which all classes can unite. In the cities they say they are going to extinguish private property; but that doctrine does not fall on itching ears when preached to the land-holding peasant. Hence the programme must continue to be two-faced. A like difficulty is felt in Germany. Bebel is for putting a strong agrarian plank into the Socialist platform, but is meeting with noisy and powerful opposition, even among his own followers. The *Sozial-Demokrat* calls Bebel's scheme a "tape-worm creation," which is an elegant way of saying it has no true place in the internal economy of Socialism. From such unseemly striving it is a relief to turn to the proposals of the managers of the Congress of German Catholic Socialists. They are sweetly going to "remedy existing social evils by the application of the principles of Christianity to the economic life." Some of the applications they propose to make, however, will surely expose them, if ever practically urged, to the rebuke which the Pope addressed to the Belgian clergy when he warned them "not to confound divine right and human law."

The Rev. Joseph Parker of the London City Temple has given his views of the causes of the Liberal collapse. Coming from an old Nonconformist and Liberal leader they will command, as they deserve, attention. He is very frank in charging the disaster to the fooling of the Liberal party with "Radicalism, Socialism, and Laborism." Labor tyranny, he maintains, "cost Liberalism dear in this election," and he sees no salvation for the party except in harking back to "Liberalism in the good old healthy sense." He objects to making any more "false promises to the farmer and to the unemployed," and to thinking that a great party can live on "the labor problem." Striking confirmation of these ideas may be found in many of the letters to the *Star*, explaining, on the editor's invitation, "why we lost." One correspondent writes, "Each of us workers wants to do his own work in his own way, in as many or as few hours a day as he pleases, and for as much or as little as he can get." That is clearly the voice of an old-style workingman Liberal, and the number of his kind that gave their votes against new-style Liberalism in the election ought to be a warning to politicians against supposing that all workingmen desire to have their labor and their lives regulated by walking delegates or a fussily paternal government. It is to be said for Mr. Gladstone that he never gave in to this Liberal labor and Socialist craze. He was not trained in that school. Labor delegations he would receive courteously, but would invariably stick pins in their bubbles. His style of meeting them may grow more popular now that the other style is shown not to have even the merit of succeeding in winning votes. Any other merit it never had.

Lord Salisbury has already been waited upon by representatives of workingmen in Government employ, and informed that his victory at the polls was due solely to them. They were the ones who smashed the Liberal party, and they are now prepared to smash his party unless some of their modest demands are promptly complied with. Samples of the little things they would like the new Premier to promise them are a minimum wage of thirty shillings a week for unskilled labor, and a pension of twenty shillings a week after fifty-five. They would also have the Government at once put an end to the pernicious plan of buying goods when it could just as well manufacture itself, at a much higher cost, everything it needs. One knows not which most to admire about this, its impudence or its ingratitude. The Liberals went further towards meeting the demands of workmen employed by Government than any party ever did before. They enforced the eight-hour law in all Government works; they passed the factory act; they practically said to the labor leaders, If you don't see what you want, ask for it. Now these same leaders turn and bite the hand that fed them. Their cool assumption that they settled the election will not deceive even themselves. Their main influence was to disgust the public with the party that truckled to them. This is not exactly an argument to make the other party begin truckling. But the Socialists are always good at claiming electoral importance. They were going to do tremendous things in the recent departmental elections in France, but, as a matter of fact, they were beaten disastrously.

The unanimous reëlection of Speaker Gully by the new Parliament on Monday was determined upon by the Cabinet some days ago; but the squelching of the attempt to override the unwritten law of Parliament, and oust him for a Conservative, is an event of great importance. It cannot be denied that the Conservatives were under peculiar temptation to elect a Speaker of their own. Mr. Gully had been chosen almost in the last hours of a dying Parliament by a moribund ministry, and under circumstances exasperating in more ways than one to the party that felt itself certain of coming soon into power. It was flatly intimated at the time, in fact, that if the Conservatives won the impending election, they would turn Mr. Gully out. This was understood to be Mr. Chamberlain's intention, and probably Mr. Balfour's. The latter, at any rate, went to Carlisle to speak against Mr. Gully's election to Parliament, though, as it turned out, the Speaker was one of the two or three Liberals who came back with increased majorities. But when the election was over, the party organs and party leaders changed their tune. It was time to be magnanimous, not grasping. It especially behooved a party that stood for the ancient traditions of Parliament in the matter of the powers and privileges of the Lords, to be careful about interfering with any of the dignities and safeguards of the Commons. But what really settled the thing was, no doubt, the open assertion of some of the oldest and most honored Conservatives, and some of the most influential Liberal Unionists without the fear of Mr. Chamberlain before their eyes, that they would not vote for a Conservative candidate should one be put up against Mr. Gully. Of course the Government could have elected a Speaker if they had insisted upon it, but they had no wish to precipitate a split on the first day of the session, and so chose the better part of making a virtue of an old custom which it would have been politically awkward for them to violate.

Before surrendering the Colonial Office to Mr. Chamberlain, Lord Ripon gave out a Parliamentary paper of great importance in the shape of a despatch to the Governor-General of Canada, the Governors of the Australasian colonies, and the Governor of the Cape. In it he takes up and examines the recommendations of the famous Ottawa conference, of a year ago, looking to the formation of a customs union between British colonies. It will be recalled that the conference declared a general British customs union impracticable, inasmuch as the colonies depend on their tariffs for so large a part of their revenue, but that it resolved heartily in favor of a system of "differential duties," by which the products of one colony should be favored above foreign products in the markets of the others and of the mother country. Lord Ripon first points out to the eager colonists the economic folly of such a scheme. Differential duties are only another name for protective duties, and he asks if anybody supposes England is going further to disable herself in the competition for the world's trade by increasing the cost of her raw material in that way. Moreover, he reminds the colonial governors, the Imperial Government has oversight of the colonies in all that relates to international obligations, and cannot permit treaties to be overridden. Existing treaties with Belgium and Germany contain clauses which would make differential duties, as against them, in a British colony impossible. The Ottawa resolutions asked the Colonial Office to have these clauses "removed." Lord Ripon says that he has referred the matter to the German and Belgian governments, and that they, maliciously enough, decline to remove them. He therefore tells the Governors that no differential-duty bill must be allowed to pass a Colonial Parliament except provisionally and subject to the approval of the Home Office. Lord Ripon's icy tone and cold logic will go far towards effectually chilling the enthusiasm of the colonists on the subject.

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CATHOLICS AND THE SALOONS.

THE convention of the Catholic Total Abstinence Union was, of course, planned to meet in this city last week without the least foresight of the remarkable conflict in which it would find the authorities and the saloons. But it could not have been more happily timed if carefully arranged for just such a situation. No single event, in fact, since the agitation began has been of equal moral and political significance with the extraordinary demonstration of Catholic sentiment, witnessed on Wednesday week, against the arrogant saloon power. Endorsed by the presence and sympathy of the highest dignitaries of the Church in this country, and of the special legate of the Pope himself, the religious celebrations of the day were highly important, but had to yield in popular effect to the great evening meeting held in Carnegie Hall. The audience gathered there was fairly representative, we are told, of what may be called the middle-class Catholics of this city. Many active politicians were present of the kind that attend primaries and manage conventions. Yet the feeling of the meeting was so evidently and overwhelmingly in favor of enforcing the excise law, especially of closing the saloons on Sunday, that the lone Tammany orator put up to test the sentiment of Catholics on the great Tammany platform of not enforcing the law retired in complete discomfiture.

Discomfiture is visible in other quarters also. The *Sun* got wind last week of what was coming—was flatly notified, in fact, that the uproarious Tammany campaign it was going to conduct on the platform of violating the Sunday law would be a campaign in which the Catholic Church would take the other side. Since then it has worn a distant and abstracted air when the subject was referred to. Now that the threatened has become the actual, now that the authorities and the representatives of the Catholic Church have made their position so unmistakable, the hilarity of a great many statesmen will in like manner be checked. Senator Hill will take a little time to think it over before he writes another letter in favor of open saloons on Sunday, law or no law. The Democratic State committee will be fully as cautious as was the Republican in handling this dynamite cartridge. Inner Tammany circles will be again shrouded in that gloom which they thought was surely lifting before the prospect of their coming back to power as the champions of lawlessness.

That the Catholic Church could have been expected to take any other position only shows how inconceivably stupid politicians can be when they set about it. Her official and authoritative attitude towards the liquor traffic and the Sunday question has long been known. It was explicitly set forth in Archbishop Ryan's sermon last week. The Church does not lay down any absolute and binding doctrine of total abstinence. It does not declare liquor-selling of all kinds and under all circumstances to be a sin. But it has pronounced and will continue to pronounce in favor of temperance, and has stigmatized saloon-keeping as an "unbecoming business" for a Catholic. The Archbishop freely acknowledged that a stigma had been brought on the Catholic name by the fact of so many Catholics being intemperate and so many nominal Catholics being saloon-keepers. But that was only an added reason, he maintained, for making the true teaching and attitude of the Church known, and for encouraging the Total Abstinence Union and every other moral or legal influence which would tend to diminish or cure the evils of drunkenness. Most outspoken was the Rev. Father Cleary, President of the Union. Amidst loud applause, he denounced "the liquor power, intrenched behind a fortification of wealth gathered from the earnings of the unfortunate," now grown "defiant of public opinion," "the uncompromising enemy of religion and country," "desecrating the sanctity of our Sunday and making a mockery of universal suffrage."

Of course, the peculiar value of this great Catholic demonstration at the present juncture lies in the fact that it reveals the existence of an immense political power on the side of the observance of law and a quiet Sunday. The Catholic vote has undoubtedly been largely a Tammany vote. Therefore, some hasty political reasoners have argued, Tammany being for an excise law to be enforced or not according as the authorities were paid or not, and especially for a lawless Sunday, the Catholic Church will be for those things, too. No greater mistake could be made. Senator O'Sullivan knows more about his subject now than he did before the Catholics in Carnegie Hall hissed and hooted him for his law-defying words. Far from Tammany being likely to swing the Catholic vote on this question, the Catholic vote is likely to make Tammany see a great light such as has already dawned upon the *Sun*. Tammany may hope and mean to win the next election as the party pledged to restore the old fraudulent and corrupt excise régime, but it will be pretty secret about it; it will not go on openly boasting that the platform of lawlessness is the one on which to carry this city.

It is further to be considered that the working Catholic priests of New York are in a position to know and to influence the political sentiments of vast numbers of foreign-born voters. Their testimony is far more valuable than that of an equal body of Protestant clergymen. Many of them have assured the Police Board that the policy of Sunday closing is by no means working such havoc or proving so unpopular in the tenement-house districts as has been alleged. They also carry greater weight than Protestants because their views have a way of affecting the votes of their congregations. Of too many Protestant clergymen the politicians will say, as Lord Carteret said of Bishop Sherlock, "Oh, he talks like a parson, and consequently is so used to talk to people that don't mind him that I left him to find it out at his leisure, and shall have him again for all this whenever I want him." Catholic priests are not so open to this charge, and their arraying themselves, with so many of their people, on the side of enforcement of law and resistance to the arrogant pretensions of saloonists to special privileges, cannot fail to give a different political aspect to the whole question. For one thing, it puts an end, for a time at least, to the talk about Tammany, as the great exemplar of lawlessness and disorder, "coming back with a whoop."

LORD SALISBURY AND ARMENIA.

LORD SALISBURY'S natural predilection is for foreign affairs, and his equally natural predilection is to conduct them with a high hand. The big majority now behind him will not have a tendency to rein him in. The chances are, therefore, that he would, in any case, adopt a peremptory tone in the negotiations with Turkey about ravaged Armenia; these chances really amount to a certainty in view of the powerful and united sentiment in England now clamorous for such a course.

A highly significant fact about Mr. Gladstone's recent speech on the Armenian horrors is, that it was made practically at Lord Salisbury's request. Some of the latter's friends and supporters, notably the Duke of Westminster, chairman of the Chester meeting on August 6, arranged the demonstration and obtained Mr. Gladstone's promise to speak. He had steadily refused to say anything until the general election was over, lest a partisan twist might be given to his remarks. Then he virtually came forward to strengthen Lord Salisbury's hands. This was put beyond all doubt by the terms of the resolution he introduced, which declared that the Government would have "the cordial support of the entire nation, without distinction of party," in providing effective guarantees for "the safety of life, honor, religion, and property" in Armenia.

This coöperation of two rival leaders in such a cause is an incident which might be used to point a moral to some of our small-minded politicians. To have invited the assistance of Mr. Gladstone was practically a confession by Lord Salisbury that he and his party were not the only ones concerned about the national honor, not the only ones in whose keeping that honor was safe. And for Mr. Gladstone to go forward cheerfully, even ardently, not to put his old antagonist "in a hole," but actually to help and strengthen him, betrays woful mismanagement from the standpoint of higher American politics. But the one great result

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of such a union of forces is to assure Lord Salisbury of support in the most vigorous measures he may see fit to adopt with the Porte. When Gladstone cries out, "Do not let us be afraid of the word coercion," it is safe to say that Salisbury will not be afraid of it.

The question is now an old one, but in its present phase it may be said to date from 1878. In that year England and Turkey made a convention, by the first article of which the Sultan agreed to introduce reforms into the government of his Christian and other subjects in Armenia, and in the same year the Treaty of Berlin was signed. It provided for religious liberty in all Turkey, and the Sultan undertook "to carry out, without further delay, the improvements and reforms demanded by local requirements in the provinces inhabited by the Armenians, and to guarantee their security against the Circassians and Kurds." It was further required that the Sultan should report periodically what steps were being taken to carry out this article, and that the Powers should superintend the application of them. The Porte, being responsible to all the Powers, has stood in real fear of none, and the Powers, not having decided upon the *modus operandi* to be employed in superintending the carrying out of the reforms, have stood idly by while the Turks and Kurds have played into each other's hands, and, actuated by a common hatred of the Armenians, have run riot in outrage and oppression. "Christian and civilized Europe," as M. Rolin-Jacquemyns said in an article in the *Revue de Droit International* in 1887, "was more occupied with its intestine quarrels and jealousies than with its collective duties." That since the treaty of Berlin the condition of the Armenians has not improved, and that Turkey has not introduced any real reforms in amelioration of their condition, there is abundant evidence.

Soon after the treaty went into effect, the British Consul at Erzerum wrote to his Government that the condition of the Christians was worse than ever, that the Kurds had the upper hand, and that in some localities arson, assault, and rape were committed with impunity. The regular troops were as bad as the Kurds, and committed precisely the same offences. Bribery of officials existed almost everywhere, and the occasional pure official was powerless in the face of extended organized official corruption. In 1879 Sir A. H. Layard, British Ambassador to Turkey, wrote as follows to Lord Salisbury:

> "Unless the Porte takes care, and acts with prudence and forethought, there will be an Armenian question in Asia similar to the Bulgarian question in Europe, from which the last war arose. The same intrigues are being resorted to in Asia Minor to establish an Armenian nationality, and to bring about a state of things which will cause a cry of horror among the Christian population, and a European intervention."

In 1880 the Powers addressed a collective note to the Porte on the subject of Armenia. It called attention to the fact that anarchy existed in the provinces inhabited by the Armenians, and that the existing state of affairs, if not remedied, "would, in all probability, lead to the destruction of the Christian population of vast districts." To this remonstrance the Sultan made no reply whatsoever.

But the question has now reached a stage where common humanity demands that it be settled. Whether Armenia is taken entirely away from Turkey and erected into an independency, or whether the Sultan shall be permitted to govern it only in such a way as European influence or coercion shall direct, are questions for discussion; but that existing conditions cannot be endured much longer is palpable. The extent of the massacre near Mush a year ago cannot yet be estimated accurately, and, in view of past experience in similar cases, it is probable that it will never be entirely known. That it embraced fully 10,000 people is not at all improbable. As the Armenians are not permitted to carry arms, there can have been no real contest, nor can the inspiration of the slaughter be properly attributed to a rebellion against the Turkish Government. An organized uprising is an impossibility under the circumstances. Mr. Gladstone, in his speech at Chester, merely repeated what he said in his speech of December last. After touching upon the evidence of the massacre which tended "strongly to a conclusion to the general effect that the outrages and the scenes and abominations of 1876 in Bulgaria had been repeated in 1894 in Armenia," he added:

> "As I have said, I hope it is not so, and I will hope to the last; but if it is so, it is time that one general shout of execration—not of men, but of deeds—one general shout of execration, directed against deeds of wickedness, should rise from outraged humanity, and should force itself into the ears of the Sultan of Turkey and make him sensible, if anything can make him sensible, of the madness of such a course."

THE LEGION OF HONOR.

THE French Chamber has furnished another example of its incapacity as a governing body by its recent action concerning the Legion of Honor. M. Eiffel, the eminent engineer, was a member of the Legion of Honor, and was also involved in the Panama Canal scandal. For his dealings in this matter he was prosecuted, and in the first instance convicted of fraud. His conviction was reversed by the Court of Cassation upon the ground that what we should call the statute of limitations protected him. The defence urged by M. Eiffel, that he was not guilty of fraud because he acted in the capacity of a contractor and not that of an agent, was not considered by the Court of Cassation, as his conviction was irregular upon the ground above mentioned. Upon the suggestion of the Minister of Justice, the council of the Legion of Honor undertook an investigation upon its own account. After prolonged inquiry the committee to whom the investigation was intrusted reported that the evidence showed that M. Eiffel had undoubtedly been too much "preoccupied with his own pecuniary interests," and had not sufficiently regarded his responsibilities as a member of the Legion of Honor. Nevertheless they declared that he had dealt "at arm's length" with the Panama Company and had been guilty of no breach of trust. He had made a contract with the company which no doubt brought him in enormous gains, but which the company deliberately agreed to. In view of all the circumstances, however, the committee reported that M. Eiffel, as a member of the Legion of Honor, deserved censure.

Upon this the Chancellor of the Legion requested the opinion of the President of the Court of Cassation, who submitted conclusions similar to those reached by the committee. The matter then came before the full Council of the Legion of Honor and received there also full discussion. At last one member, wearied by the prolonged debate, arose and said, "M. Eiffel is either guilty or not guilty. If he is guilty, he ought to be expelled; if he is not guilty, he ought to be acquitted." A vote being taken, the majority of the Council declared that M. Eiffel had not been guilty of dishonorable conduct, and was therefore not amenable to discipline. Upon this the French Chamber, in a tempest of virtuous indignation, voted, with only two dissentient voices, that the Government should undertake the reorganization of the Council of the Legion of Honor. There was nothing for the members of the Council to do after such a vote except to resign; but the Chamber was entirely unprepared with any scheme of reorganization. The Government has, therefore, requested the Council to continue its functions for the present, and, so far as yet appears, its members may retain their offices for an indefinite period. Their personal character, it is fair to add, appears to be above reproach.

While the action of the Chamber was hasty and ill-considered, it can hardly be said that it justified the virulent denunciation which it has received from the partisans of the Legion of Honor. This vituperation strikingly resembles that which our Grand Army pours forth whenever any reform of our pension abuses is proposed, and it may be apprehended that it has a similar cause. For it must be remembered that honor is not the sole advantage that goes with the red ribbon. Something more substantial in the shape of pecuniary emolument is very extensively enjoyed. Experience has shown that recipients of pensions are a sensitive class. They estimate highly the services for which their pensions are bestowed, and they resent angrily any manifestation on the part of the public of a disposition to question the accuracy of this estimate or to scrutinize the pension roll. Experience has also proved that where honorary distinctions have been combined with pecuniary gains,

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a sordid condition of affairs tends to result. It must be admitted that the outcries of the champions of the Legion of Honor suggest that "that sensibility of principle, that chastity of honor, which felt a stain like a wound, is gone." Nowhere is it suggested that the inability of the Legion of Honor to purge itself of such dubious characters as M. Eiffel shows that its title has become inappropriate. Apparently its journalistic defenders are as indifferent as are the members of our Grand Army to the moral delinquencies of its members. It is not honor that is involved, but titles and pensions. It is not what the organization represents that is sacred, but the organization itself.

Every such organization bears within itself the seeds of its own decay, and the existence of this and similar organizations in France has had much to do with the perversion of the brilliant qualities of that country. The man who sets his heart upon obtaining a decoration—and a pension—on the ground of his virtue, is not ideally virtuous. Such decorations are appropriate in ages when bravery and virtue are synonymous. The motives which make men perform daring acts are then immaterial. It is enough when, from whatever motive, they are willing to take their lives in their hands. Superstition, race hatred, desire for fame, or whiskey may be the inspiring cause of bold deeds, but it is the deeds themselves that must be honored without questioning the consciences of the heroes. In peaceful times it is unnecessary to encourage moral excellence by any public "recompense of reward." The French nature, however, seems to crave open recognition of virtue, and thus tends to subordinate virtue to glory.

Napoleon, who founded the Legion of Honor, understood his countrymen, and he understood also the spirit of his age. That spirit demanded equality of opportunity—*la carrière ouverte aux talents*—and he offered a decoration to every common soldier who distinguished himself. In the quality of this decoration differences of rank or position were ignored, and the order was at once military and democratic. Under Napoleon III., however, aristocratical distinctions were introduced. The red ribbon was reserved for officers, while yellow was the color for private soldiers. For a time after the war of 1870 the Legion of Honor was again a purely military order. But, during a quarter of a century of peace, soldiers have had little opportunity to perform acts worthy of glorification, and the non-military element has increased until now nearly one-half of the members are civilians. The pitiful jealousies and heartburnings and intrigues which the anxiety to be decorated has injected into Parisian life are too well known to need to be dwelt upon. "Plus on la donne, plus on la demande," was Napoleon's experience with his creation, and the pressure to obtain the ribbon is like that to obtain office in this country. Doubtless the Legion of Honor will be after some fashion reorganized, but it is beyond the power of the French Chamber to make it "the nurse of manly sentiment and heroic enterprise," or to impart to it that "unbought grace of life" which is indeed the grace of a day that is dead.

ANOTHER HYMN TO APOLLO.

THE discovery of another hymn to Apollo, accompanied by the musical notation, is a piece of good luck which was well deserved by the explorers at Delphi, and, we may add, not entirely unexpected. It was thought probable that the Treasury of the Athenians which yielded the hymns described last year might furnish another contribution to the history of Greek music. This has proved to be the case, and the results are figured and described in the latest issue of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* (xi-xii, November, December, 1894). The fragment of forty-two lines, with some letters missing in every line, is engraved in two columns on a marble slab sixty-one centimetres high and eighty wide. As in the former hymn, the stone-cutter, following the musician's copy, pursues the practice of writing vowels and diphthongs twice, whether naturally long or long by position, when the rhythm and musical notes make them stand, by resolution, for two short syllables. The first column numbers twenty-eight lines, the beginnings of which are generally well preserved; the left-hand upper corner was broken off, but this lacuna is fortunately filled by a fragment figured in the last volume of the Bulletin. The second column has been reconstructed from nine fragments ingeniously pieced together by the efforts of MM. Homolle and Bourguet and the suggestions of Prof. Otto Crusius. The text is restored and ably edited by M. Henri Weil, the music transcribed by M. Théodore Reinach. It is a noteworthy fact that M. Weil was aided in his conjectures by a curious refinement of the musician, a correspondence between the word-accent and the melody, which requires us, for example, in line eleven, to read δρό]μους instead of ἀτ]μοὺς. The principle upon which this is based, and which was discovered by MM. Havet and Reinach while studying the Seikelos inscription, was observed by Crusius and Monro in the former hymn, and has just been completely formulated by M. Reinach.

The general sense of the hymn is given in a very satisfactory degree by M. Weil's restitution. It was a species of thanksgiving performed by a chorus of Dionysiac artists from Athens, and it belonged in strictness to the class called *hyporchemes*—that is to say, the words were chanted to the accompaniment of the flute and the lyre by a portion of the chorus, while the remaining portion executed a dance of appropriate character. The rhythm, like that of the first-discovered hymn, is pæonic; it consists of a succession of pæons or Cretics (— ⏑ —) in five-eighths time, except that the prayer at the close passes over into a Glyconic system. There is also a close family resemblance between the subject and the occasion of the two hymns. The epoch of the latter is absolutely fixed by the forty-first line as falling after the time of the Roman conquest, and may be placed near the end of the second century B. C. We may therefore assume the poem to be commemorative of the defeat of the Gauls. It was doubtless written by some member of the guild of Dionysiac artists, the τεχνιτῶν of line twenty-two; and it displays the conventional arrangement and sentiments that might be expected from a versifier who wrote professionally to order, without inspiration or with borrowed inspiration.

Beginning, as in duty bound, with an invocation of the Muses, the poem passes to the story of the birth of Apollo, of his visit to the Attic land, where a mysterious voice salutes him with the cry of Pæan, the title by which he is still invoked by all Athenians and by the Dionysiac troop that now chants his praise. As he then founded his temple and defended it against the dragon, so later did he keep guard against the barbarian horde, in memory of which they raise this hymn. Borrowing many phrases and epithets from the Homeric Hymn to Apollo, it closes with a prayer for the people of Delphi and of Athens. The translation runs as follows:

"Come to the twin heights of beetling Parnassus that looks afar, and inspire my songs, Pierian Muses, ye who dwell in the snow-beaten crags of Helicon. Sing of the Pythian god, of golden hair, Phœbus with the tuneful lyre, whom blessed Leto bore beside the famous water, grasping with her hands in labor-pangs the lusty shoot of the gray-green olive tree. And the vault of heaven was glad and radiant with unclouded light; the æther stilled the swift courses of the wind to calm, while the deep boom of the furious billows sank to rest, and mighty Oceanus, who with his moist arms clasps the earth around.

"Then, leaving the Cynthian Island, the god set foot upon the glorious land of Attica, first dowered with Demeter's gift, hard by the hill of Pallas; and he was sped by melodies of the Libyan lotus, mingling its honey-sweet breath with the varied notes of the lyre. Thrice did the voice that dwells in the rock hail him with the cry of 'Pæan,' and he rejoiced because he laid up in his heart and understood the will of Zeus. Wherefore, from that time forth, our Attic folk, sons of the soil, call him Pæan; and by that name he is invoked by the great sacred band of the servants of Bacchus, smitten by the thyrsus, who dwell in the city of Cecrops.

"Advance, then, warder of the oracular tripod, to the summit of Parnassus trodden by the gods, dear to the Mænads in their ecstasies. There once, garlanding thy golden locks with laurel boughs, thou wert dragging with thy sacred hand enormous blocks, the foundations of thy temple, when thou didst encounter the monstrous daughter of Earth [the dragon Python]; abiding her onset, O deity of the gracious eyes, thou didst slay with thy arrows the child of Earth. . . . And thou wert keeping guard by the holy place that is the navel of the Earth, when the Barbarian horde of Gauls, bent on profaning thy rich shrine with plunder, perished in the whirlwind of snow. Now, O Phœbus, save and guard the city founded by Pallas, and her famous people; and thou, too, goddess of the bow, and mistress of the Cretan hounds, and thou, Leto most revered! guard ye the dwellers of Delphi, their children, their consorts, and their homes, free from calamity. Be favorable to the servants of Bacchus, crowned with the honors of the games! Prosper and increase the martial sway of the Romans! May it flourish in the might of immortal youth, and be ever triumphant in battle!"

Our poet has chosen, singularly enough, to make his dragon feminine; the poet of the former hymn disagrees with him in this point. This might lead us to ascribe the two hymns to different authors; their epoch is certainly nearly the same, they belong to the same school, and are shaped on the same pattern. They are so much alike that the later discovery sheds light on the earlier, and enables the editors to amend in some particulars the readings and the music published last year. The chief change, and a very obvious one, is that which reverses the order of the marble slabs and makes the invocation to the Muses stand at the beginning, after the pattern of the second hymn. Minor changes are extremely interesting, but belong to the province of the scholarly expert.

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Musically, the new hymn is the most interesting relic yet discovered. Unlike the former hymn, it is written with instrumental instead of vocal note signs. Crusius and Gevaert take this to mean that the accompaniment was in unison with the voice. Without positively denying this view, Reinach relegates it to a footnote, evidently preferring his own explanation, that the instrumental (probably Dorian) notation was originally the only one, and that the later Ionic notation superseded it only in vocal scores, and *that* not universally; just as the Germans use either Gothic or Roman letters for most books, but almost always the Roman for scientific works.

The new hymn, taken with its predecessor, confirms several points not fully established before. Thus, we observe that neither hymn has any signs to denote the duration of the notes; and it now seems safe to say, at least for this period (about 100 B. C.), that such signs were probably never used when the metre was certain without them. In the Seikelos inscription they occur and are indispensable, since without them it would be impossible to distinguish the iambic character of that piece. Again, the law of correspondence, mentioned above, between melody and word-accent, though not noticed by Reinach and Weil in their article on the former hymn, as both Crusius and D. B. Monro immediately pointed out, is seen to be observed in both hymns. It is time now to give this very simple law: (1.) Unaccented syllables may have the same note as the accented syllable of the same word, but not a higher. (2.) Circumflexed syllables, when musically resolved into two shorts, always pass from a higher to a lower note. Every one sees what a flood of light such a law throws upon the true nature of the Greek and Latin word-accent as distinguished from metrical accent and from word-accent as we understand it in the modern languages of the same family. We must look to the Chinese for word-accent in the ancient sense.

We have pointed out how this law aids in restoring the text when the note of the missing syllable is preserved. It may even do so when both syllable and note are lost. If, for example, the following note is the lowest of the scale, the note of the missing syllable cannot be the same, for in that case the one remaining would not carry the note-sign. It must, therefore, be a higher note, and the syllable must be accented, if the word is dissyllabic. The restoration of fragmentary music is very much more difficult than that of a defective text, as any one may ascertain by trying the experiment on an English ballad. Hence Reinach's transcription is given with distinct reservations. Add to this that this inscription is far less legible than that of the other hymn —a fact which caused the fragments now composing the second column to be attributed to a hymn written in vocal score.

Reinach's careful analysis of the partial scales of our hymn leads to certain conclusions, the detailed proof of which our space forbids us to give. The hymn is in the Lydian trope combined with the hypo-Lydian. We find the same accuracy in notation as in the former hymn, where the same note has different signs as it stands in different scales—just as in modulating, for example, from C minor to A minor, we write G sharp for A flat. As to the mode, Reinach (who, we are pleased to find, is not a convert to Monro's heresy as to the meaning of ἁρμονία) shows that the Glyconic finale is probably in the Dorian (descending scale of A minor with flattened B), while the remaining diatonic parts are hyper-Dorian, or mixo-Lydian, which is only Dorian with "conjoint" tetrachords. There are some peculiarities of style which suggest that the composer consciously imitated archaic or Attic models. One is the absence of the *lichanos* (C natural) in the Dorian passages—a peculiarity noted in the ancient music of Olympos. Another is the small compass of the mixo-Lydian passages, the diminished fifth B-F. To this we might add, if we adopt Reinach's explanation, the use of the ancient Dorian notation. Reinach's judgment of the composer is that he had more technical skill and less inspiration than the composer of the former hymn. The music is more ambitious, and the unusual compass (a diminished twelfth, of which the extreme notes are frequent) makes it clear that it was written for skilful professional performers. This, if we might venture on a suggestion of our own, may be the reason why the score could be written in the instrumental notation which might not have been equally familiar to less skilful vocalists. And may it not be that the instrumental performers also sang to their own harping?

The discovery of this hymn has seemed to demand a new transcription of the former one. This, and a new rendering of the Seikelos inscription, besides a collation of the new hymn with the Lydian and hypo-Lydian scales, are given in the tables in addition to the new hymn itself.

ALASKA REVISITED.—III.

JULY, 1895.

THE characteristic scenery of southeastern Alaska has been described by numerous tourists in various books which have been duly reviewed in your columns. The narrow channels, like rivers, between lofty spruce-covered mountains, though picturesque and peculiar, in time pall on the attention. Except where diversified by the glaciers of the mainland, each of which has a certain individuality, the landscape finally strikes one as rather monotonous. It is difficult to exaggerate the beauty and sublimity of such a glacier-field as that of the Muir in Glacier Bay, when seen under sunny skies, and this has been repeatedly described and photographed. There are, however, several corners which in their way are equally striking, but which, being aside from the tourist route, are almost unknown. One of these is Sumdum Bay, an arm of Stephens Passage, in which a good anchorage is found. Near the mouth, on the north shore, there is a fine large glacier. The bay is long and narrow, and at its head two other glaciers discharge a multitude of small bergs directly into the water. The mountains are high and wooded, snowy above the tree-line, and offer several beautiful cascades. Two or three remarkable narrow cañons diverge from the main channel, one of which is sometimes closed by descending masses of ice, and, from the temporary imprisonment of an explorer who ventured into its recesses, is known as "Ford's Terror." The currents in these passages acquire great strength during the flow of the tides. The varied tints of blue and green shown by the moving bergs against the dark background of sombre spruce forest, relieved by the immaculate snowfields above, which the sun suffuses with delicate rose and pearly light, present a scene of almost unique beauty.

Most remarkable of all, perhaps, is the view obtained at the head of Taku Inlet. Here also are numerous fine glaciers, some of which discharge into the sea, but beyond them is a mountain ridge rising in peaks 3,000 to 6,000 feet in height—a single one to the east, then three combined more westerly, linked by a sharp and jagged crest with a crag over a thousand feet above the rest, which has no peer equal in Alaskan scenery. Apparently composed of some schistose rock, it rises like a great stone book, the leaves represented by the fissure lines; the edge towards the spectator is nearly vertical, the covers incline slightly towards the east—sheer precipices of smooth rock on which no snow can lie—and at a distance of fifteen miles the eastern face actually seems to overhang some five degrees. The summit is nearly flat, like the upper surface of a book upon a shelf, and the width of the mass is about one-third of its height above the ridge from which it rises. It seems stupendous and incredible. Westward, the broken crags at its base connect it with another (pyramidal) peak enamelled with the whitest snow, contrasting finely with the black prismatic mass before described.

To turn from great things to small, I cannot forbear a few words on the characteristic vegetation which may be seen by the tourist fortunate enough to stray away from salmon canneries and dirty Indian villages into the forest which surrounds them. Here, among the moss-covered trunks of enormous conifers, a whole world of beauty is secluded. Prominent among green things is the large, pale yellow spathe of the "bearfood," a symplocarpus, less odoriferous than its New England congener, with leaves usually eighteen inches high, but sometimes reaching to four feet, recalling on a larger scale the erect, oval leaves of Cos lettuce. It is the favorite salad of deer and bear, whose footprints are not uncommon in the boggy places it prefers. In its immediate vicinity the "flowering raspberry," grown as an ornamental plant in old-fashioned gardens in the East, enlivens the wet places with its large rose-red blossoms. It is mistakenly called "salmon-berry" by many of the whites, though the true salmon-berry, also found here, does not reach one-tenth the size and has an insignificant white blossom. Abundant in the feathery sphagnum are the white flowerets of the dwarf cornel, and here and there the round cowslip-like leaves of a fragrant *Monesia*, with starry, delicately sculptured, waxen-white blossoms, the most elegant of the characteristic wild-flowers of this region. A pretty corydalis, a red columbine, numerous peculiar forms of the blueberry, and two or three fragrant white and purple orchids, with the maroon-colored *Fritillaria Kamchatica*, make up the list of most conspicuous forms. The latter, called saranna by the Aleuts, has an edible root, like a rosette of grains of white popcorn, which was formerly collected by the natives for food.

Most characteristic for all this region, and the greatest obstacle to inland exploration, execrated by hunter and prospector, is the false ginseng (*Panax horridum*), or "devil's club," which has the habit of a sumac; its tall, slender stems, close set, with fine poisonous prickles, rising sometimes to a height of ten feet. The leaves of this plant are large and radiately pointed, and are held aloft like the branches of a candelabra, nearly umbellular in general form; late in the season the centre of the cluster has a pointed bunch of red berries at the tip of the stalk. Few plants are more elegantly decorative, and it is surprising that no designer has yet made use of it.

Ferns are abundant, but of few species, the common brake being the most noticeable; mosses and lichens flourish mightily in the moist air from the sea. The ground in the

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forest is entirely composed of decayed vegetable matter, chiefly dead trunks of trees, and mosses. One often sinks to the middle in endeavoring to force a passage. Yet decay is slow; we counted the rings in a stump of spruce from which the bole had been hewn away for firewood, and found that it must have been a well-grown sapling when Columbus discovered America. Yet clasped in its roots was the prostrate trunk of another, equally large and almost wholly sound. Deciduous trees are strangely absent. A few alders grow along the streams, and, with some small willows, streak the mountain sides where landslide or avalanche has swept the spruce away; their vivid green contrasting sharply with the sombre conifers on either side. A wild crab-apple occurs sparingly, but of oak, chestnut, birch, and maple there is not a trace. True pines are equally invisible; the spruce, hemlock, Douglas fir, and yellow cedar, with a few larch, make up the forest. The undergrowth away from the brooks is not dense, but rather feathery and graceful, everywhere reinforced by tufted mosses and luxuriant ferns. The extraordinary manner in which fallen tree-trunks lie over and upon one another, thickly carpeted with yielding mosses, renders progress difficult, but a few yards away from the beach one may find a perfect fairyland of greenery.

In and through it all are well-marked trails of the invisible forest population. These dense woods shelter more than one variety of large game still undiscriminated by naturalists. All the islands are inhabited by a small race of the black-tailed deer (*C. columbianus*) and usually by the brown and black Alaskan bears. The mountain goat is not uncommon, but is nearly inaccessible, on the ranges of the mainland and larger islands. A special, nearly white race of the mountain sheep is peculiar to this region; and the natives insist on the presence of an antelope-like animal with large straight horns. About the glaciers is found a black bear with long white-tipped hairs like a silver fox, the sides of the muzzle tan-colored and the belly nearly white. Some specimens of this animal are so hoary as to appear of a bluish white, and it is known to the trappers as the blue or St. Elias bear. As it is evidently a distinct variety from the ordinary black bear, it has recently been named *Ursus Emmonsii*. Another singular race of the brown bear has been reported to me which has, for a bear, quite a long tail. The skin of a young cub of this kind shown me from the Cook's Inlet region has a tail about six inches long. These facts indicate that the field for the sportsman and naturalist in Alaska is by no means exhausted, and that those in search of adventure, by leaving the tourist route, will find no lack of opportunity. W. H. D.

THE INDUSTRIAL ALLIANCE OF FRANCE AND RUSSIA.

PARIS, July 31, 1895.

THE successful emission of a Chinese loan of 400,000,000 francs in the Paris market is an event which has more than a financial importance. It shows once more how intimately connected France and Russia have become, as it is quite certain that the French subscribers did not for a moment think of affording any help to China, and really looked upon the loan of 400,000,000 as a Russian loan, since the Russian Government had given its guarantee for the payment of the interest, in case the payment could not, for any unforeseen reason, be made out of the proceeds of the Chinese custom-houses. It has been calculated that within a few years France has invested in the Russian funds a sum not much below eight milliards of francs. These vast investments have considerably helped Russia; her debt has been gradually converted, she has been able to build the strategic railroads which are necessary for the mobilization of her armies, and she is now engaged in building a trans-Siberian railway, which will put the Ural region in communication with the Pacific Ocean.

Russia, though still in many respects in a sort of inorganic state, is organizing herself more and more, and is becoming a more formidable power not only in Europe, but also in Asia. Her interference arrested without any difficulty the progress of the Japanese arms on the Asiatic continent; the treaty which ended the war, and by virtue of which Japan had to evacuate the provinces and the positions she had conquered on the continent, was due to the joint action of Russia, of Germany, and of France. In reality, Russia was the leading factor in this diplomatic action. Germany, without having any direct interests involved in the Asiatic question, joined Russia in the hope of establishing more cordial relations with her and also with France. It was in her case "love's labor lost," and the Germans saw, not without some irritation, when the Baltic Canal was opened, that the French and Russian squadrons arrived together, that the civilities exchanged by them with the German squadron were of the most formal character. We can not much wonder if the new Chinese loan, which received the guarantee of Russia, was subscribed only in France; Germany would have nothing to do with it, any more than would England, who always looks upon Russia as an hereditary enemy.

Much has been said and written, on occasion of this Chinese-Russian loan, on the character of the alliance between France and Russia. Is there a real alliance? Is there a written treaty, and, if so, what are its terms and conditions? Can there be a real treaty of alliance, and has the President of the French Republic the right to sign such a treaty? The question is being discussed with some warmth, and the framers of the Constitution of 1875 have been interviewed on the subject. Article 8 of the constitutional law of July 16, 1875, on the relations of the public powers, says merely that the President "negotiates and ratifies treaties." This same article says that "treaties of peace and of commerce, those which involve the finances of the States, and those which relate to the personal status and property rights of Frenchmen living abroad, are definitive only after having been voted by the two Chambers." You will perceive that in these articles there is no question of treaties of alliance. M. Wallon, the reporter of the law of 1875, said in a recent conversation:

"The President of the Republic, with the assent of his Ministers, has the right to put his signature to a draft of a treaty. Nothing forbids it. But the truth is, that no treaty has any real value before it has been ratified by the Chambers. I will explain. The Government of the French Republic can make a moral engagement, even a written engagement, with such and such a country, in view of such and such an eventuality. These are rational measures, which may be very useful. But to realize these measures, to put, so to speak, a treaty in motion, to draw from it its practical consequences, the assent of the Chambers is not only useful, but indispensable. This results from the general character of our constitutional laws, which have for their basis the national sovereignty."

It is easy to perceive that the character of these laws, if it does not preclude the executive power from taking some of the measures which are a preparation for war, makes it rather difficult to take them. Rapidity of orders is one of the essential elements of success. There are some eventualities which would force the assent of the Chambers to the action of the executive power; there are others which might induce the Chambers not to give their immediate and unanimous assent to a treaty prepared by the Cabinet. "People," said M. Wallon, "have spoken recently of a Russo-French treaty; it has been said that France and Russia have entered into a mutual engagement to support each other in all possible contingencies. Suppose for a moment that Russia wished to drag us into a war with England. Well! that would be . . . terrible; it would be worth while to examine the question."

Undoubtedly these questions have been well examined in Russia as well as in France. One thing, however, is certain, namely, the attraction felt in Russia towards France, the attraction felt in France towards Russia. I need not recur to the great popular demonstrations which took place when Admiral Avelan and his officers visited Paris; to the great naval reviews at Toulon and Cronstadt. The sympathy felt in France for Russia took a more utilitarian form when French capital began to look to Russia for investment. Not only did France help Russia to reorganize her finances and to improve her credit, she is playing a very important part in the creation of Russian industries. This powerful collaboration is perhaps not so well known as it ought to be.

Russia possesses enormous coal fields and an abundance of mineral ores, which constitute a reserve of wealth that is only beginning to be touched. She has to create an immense network of railways, and for a long time she depended on her neighbors for the needful supply of rails and machinery. She is now preparing to become a producer of rails and machinery instead of being a mere consumer, and in this great work she has found a powerful help in French capital and French initiative. The city of Lyons is at the head of this interesting movement. Lyons is a financial centre of great importance. The Lyonnese financiers and capitalists, who are in alliance with the powerful capitalists of Geneva, are a very intelligent and laborious body of workers. They are not, like the financiers of Paris, divided between pleasure and speculation; life has a severe aspect in Lyons, and its inhabitants sacrifice little to fancy and to luxury. I do not know how it came about that the attention of Lyons was turned towards Russian industrial affairs; but at the present moment an enormous amount of its capital is looking for investment in Russian affairs—coal mines, iron mines, iron and steel manufactures. While Paris, following the lead of London, is thinking only of the Witwaters Rand, and the Transvaal, Lyons seems to think only of Russia. The Society of Briansk was constituted as far back as 1873, the Society of Huta-Bankova in 1877, the Franco-Russian Works in 1880, the Society of Kama in 1883, the Metallurgical Society of the Dnieper in 1887, the Society of the Donetz in 1891. Brussels has taken an important part in this movement, together with Lyons. To give an idea of the success of some of these companies, I will only say that the shares of the Dnieper Society, which are nominally of 500 credit rubles, or about 1,250 francs, are now quoted at 6,500 francs.

Metallurgy in Russia is now passing through a period of extraordinary prosperity. Nearly all over Europe the network of railways is al-

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most finished; the great railway companies of France, having now steel rails, give very few orders to the immense establishments which were created in view of railroad extension. In Russia, on the other hand, many large cities are still awaiting railroads; in Siberia the Government is only beginning the long line to the Pacific. Russia has to make bridges over her immense rivers, to improve her ports, to open her vast coal-fields. Many years will be necessary for this great work. The economical consequences of the development of the wealth of Russia will be of immense importance, not only to Europe, but also to America. Hitherto, Russian corn has found its way only with much difficulty to the Black Sea; hereafter it will have easier access to it, and will be better able to compete with its rivals.

If we look to a very distant future, as we now see the centre of industrial activity in its relation to coal and iron slowly transferring itself from the centre of Europe to the vast empire of Russia, our children will probably see it transferred to Siberia and to China. The time will come when the immense Asiatic continent will be covered with railways. The Chinese are admirable workmen; they can live on very small wages; they will some day, after having taken lessons from our engineers, make their own rails, their own cars, their own locomotives. There is something very suggestive in the diplomatic efforts made by Russia to secure the friendship and alliance of China. The Russian assimilates himself better than any other race with the Chinaman; and in the obscurities of the future we can discern immense changes in the Chinese Empire, achieved by the progressive interference not of Russian arms, perhaps, but of Russian industry and civilization.

At no time have the political and the economical interests of nations been more closely intermixed; revolutions which in old times could have been accomplished only by force, will in future times be accomplished more and more by peaceful means. The world, in a sense, is becoming more contracted, and the interests of nations lie nearer together than in the past. Europe is perforce obliged to watch and to help along the economical development of countries which, not many years ago, were known only to travellers and geographers.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish directly 'Gustave Flaubert, as seen in his Works and Correspondence,' by John Charles Tarver; 'The Story of the Earth,' by H. G. Seeley; 'The Red-Badge Courage,' a Tale of the Civil War, by Stephen Crane; and the 'Watter's Mou',' by Bram Stoker.

'Reconstruction during the Civil War in America,' by Eben Greenough Scott, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Spenser Society has completed its set of Drayton by publishing an "Introduction." Mr. Oliver Elton, to whom, on the retirement of Mr. Bullen, the preparation of this preliminary essay was intrusted, has done his work well, and, if he has not solved all the literary and biographical problems involved, has at least furnished a solid basis for future investigation. The volume contains a good portrait of Drayton.

Dr. Karl Bülbring has recently edited Defoe's unpublished tract on 'Royal Education' (London: Nutt). The manuscript long escaped attention by the accident of being embodied in that of 'The Complete English Gentleman.' The tract has slight literary importance, but is not without a certain interest. All possessors of Dr. Bülbring's edition of 'The Complete English Gentleman' will wish to secure it.

'Twenty-five Letters on English Authors,' by Mary Fisher (Chicago: Griggs), is a rambling book which the "young people" for whom it is principally intended would do well to avoid.

'Maureen's Fairing, and Other Stories,' which have been daintily brought out in the "Iris Series" (Macmillan), are not up to Miss Barlow's earlier and entirely spontaneous work. Such of them, however, as are Irish are still far beyond the average treatment of Irish subjects. Four of the eight tales have already appeared in current periodicals. Miss Barlow excels rather in conversation than in plot. Bertha Newcombe's illustrations are charming. Why "A Formidable Rival" should be placed before "Mac's Luncheon," which naturally precedes it, we fail to understand. "Stopped by Signal" and "The Murphys' Supper" are most instinct with the author's genius. The volume will well repay purchase and perusal.

Mr. Sylvester Baxter, Secretary of the preliminary Metropolitan Park Commission of Massachusetts, has just issued a 'Boston Park Guide,' which includes the municipal and metropolitan systems of Greater Boston, with maps and views. This guide deserves a very wide circulation in every municipality, for there is none to which the most notable American example of foresight, public spirit, and expert landscape gardening will not come as a revelation and a stimulus. Mr. Baxter is his own publisher, at No. 255 Washington Street, Boston.

A fresh volume from Brunetière's pen, 'Nouveaux Essais sur la littérature contemporaine' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), is full of matter for thought, full of instruction and suggestion. The great critic has his theories and his special antipathies and prejudices, but he has a large and effective way of dealing with the subjects he takes up, and a luminous fashion of treating them. The reader who has studied a writer carefully is amazed to find how much that is new Brunetière can still point out to him, and what novel suggestions of connection, influence, or effect a sentence of his will reveal. In the present collection there is an admirable essay on Leconte de Lisle, another on Baudelaire, and a third on Bourget which should be read in connection with that on Octave Feuillet and with M. Larroumet's essay on Bourget. Appended to the volume is M. Brunetière's *discours de réception*.

Teodor de Wyzewa's "Nos Maîtres" (Paris: Perrin & Cie.) is an interesting and useful volume, in which several important literary and æsthetic questions are discussed. Mallarmé is treated of rather fully, but it is the general questions which are most attractive—"Of Criticism," "Of Science," "Of the Religion of Love and Beauty." These should not be missed, particularly the last.

The life and work of Victor Duruy are succinctly described by M. E. Lavisse in "Un Ministre: Victor Duruy" (Paris: Colin & Cie.), the greatest stress being naturally laid on Duruy's work as Minister. It is a timely testimony to the educational labors which did much for France.

'Un Diplomate à Londres: Lettres et Notes, 1871-77,' by Charles Gavard (Paris: Plon) is a gossipy little book, very entertaining reading, and in many respects a valuable contribution to contemporary history. It consists chiefly of letters written home, the first of which, dated February 24, 1871, announces the author's arrival in England, and begins with giving vent to his patriotic feelings by the exclamation: "At last in a land where there is no Prussian!" About a month later Napoleon was released from captivity and took up his abode at Chiselhurst, and M. Gavard describes with evident disgust how the ex-Emperor was run after and cheered by the English on every occasion, and remarks, in general, their habit of lionizing any noted or notorious person who may have made himself conspicuous either in a creditable or a discreditable manner. The English attribute this tendency to sympathy with the unfortunate; our author ascribes it to vulgar curiosity. He also gives an account of the visit of the German Empress Augusta to Queen Victoria in May, 1872, and comments upon Augusta's extreme volubility—a characteristic which is known to have been a source of frequent inconvenience to Bismarck. M. Gavard gives lively descriptions of social life in England, especially at the country seats of Earl Granville, Lord Salisbury, the Duke of Bedford, the Rothschilds, and other men of eminence in political aad financial affairs. He is somewhat of a sentimentalist, with a nice appreciation of "das Ewig-Weibliche," and a fine eye for peculiarities of feminine toilet.

The name of Quatrefages is associated with that view of Japanese ethnology which makes a "white" Allophyllian race, coming from the Malay region in the south, a predominant element in the race-stock (see the *American Law Review* for November-December, 1894), and new interest is given to this view by the preliminary summary, just published in the *Japan Mail*, of the researches of that indefatigable worker, Prof. Basil Chamberlain, whose grammar of the Loo Choo Islanders' language is announced for early publication in the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan. The affinities of this language, hitherto practically unexamined, are very close, it is announced, to Japanese, its relation being in effect that of a collateral but less advanced development of an originally identical stock. This suggests to Prof. Chamberlain that the Loo Choo people represent a southern offshoot of an immigration to Japan through Korea. But it seems not to have occurred to him that the stronger indication is just the opposite, viz., that the general stock came up from the south gradually, the present Japanese vernacular representing those who pushed on north and formed the dominant element in Japan. Whatever the ultimate decision, there can be no doubt that the kinship which Prof. Chamberlain will demonstrate adds abundant material for the reconsideration of the whole subject.

A new and interesting chapter in the history of Old Testament criticism seems likely to have been opened by Dr. Henry Hayman, the well-known classical scholar and former head-master of Rugby. In a communication to the *Guardian* he suggests that the original documents of the Pentateuch were not manuscripts, but clay tablets similar to those found at Tel el-Amarna a few years ago. He bases his theory on the fact that this was a common method of writing at the time of Moses, and goes on to show, by a detailed examination of the "Song of Moses" in Deuteronomy, how many of the insoluble difficulties in the text and its interpretation may have arisen from the faulty incorporation of the tablets into the roll. The proper sequence may not have been followed, or the wrong face of the tablet,

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which was written on both sides, may have been taken first. "Sometimes a *lacuna*, brief but significant, points to an edge-line or corner phrase having been slurred or chipped." Or, to put his theory in his own homely form, he "believes that we have here a pack of cards which have been shuffled and some of them 'faced,'" that is, damaged by use.

Part vi. of *Bibliographica* (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners) is not as readable as some of its predecessors. George Somes Layard's "Robinson Crusoe and its Illustrators" whets the appetite with its title, but is far too sparsely illustrated, giving but two reproductions, and these from the first edition. In this paper the elegant typography of *Bibliographica* is marred by a division (Stot-hard) of which a foreigner might pardonably have been guilty. There is no lack of cuts in part ii. of Paul Kristeller's "Florentine Book Illustrations," yet the discussion needed many more to avoid being dry and confusing. Valuable for record and reference are W. H. Allnutt's "English Provincial Presses," part ii., and Henry R. Plomer's "Notice of Printers and Printing in the State Papers." Cyril Davenport's article on "Little Gidding Bindings" is accompanied by several charming examples in color.

The second volume of the Aubrey-Beardsleyish *Moods*, "A Journal Intime" (Philadelphia: The Jenson Press), contains very little of letterpress or illustration to justify the costly manufacture. There is more substance in the moral of Owen Wister's little fable of "The Ape and the Thinker" than in all the rest. The Jenson typographic font revived in this publication will never supersede or compete with the fonts of to-day.

The "Winter number" of *Modern Art* (Boston: L. Prang & Co.) has at least one contributor in common with *Moods*, and some affinity for Beardsley, but its illustrations are on a higher level, consisting of a drawing by Mary Cassatt and a passable copy of Albrecht Dürer's "The Knight, Death and the Devil." The feature of real interest is the series of initials and title-pages elicited by a prize competition for *Modern Art*. The editor, Mr. Bowles, remarks of the former that some "were evidently thought of as parts of a printed page, and not as separate pictures, which is a rare [and inferentially a praiseworthy] thing." Judging by this correct standard, we should prefer the second prize to the first, and even the unpremiated "Hazel Nut" set—the work of women in both cases. All the best designs, by the way, come from England.

In the *Green Bag* for August, Mr. Edward S. Taney has a sketch of Chief-Justice Taney, exhibiting his amiable personal traits, his aversion to slavery, manumission of inherited slaves, personal attachment for individual negroes his pensioners, and his high tone as a public official, whose rule it was to accept no present, however trifling.

Two sterling papers adorn the current Proceedings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. One, an antiquarian investigation on "Early Shipping on Lake Superior," is by Prof. James Davie Butler; the other, by Theodore Clarke Smith, is a remarkably fair-minded and valuable historical sketch of the Free-Soil party in Wisconsin and its predecessor (and to some extent *alter ego*), the Liberty party. This paper is worthy of a reprint, and stamps the writer as one who has a clear call to be an historian.

A noteworthy contribution to the history of the sciences as a branch of instruction in secondary and higher schools is to be found in Dr. Emil Schmidt's articles on "Die Entwickelung unseres höheren Schulwesens hinsichtlich des naturwissenschaftlichen Unterrichts," in the current volume (January, February) of the *Paedagogium* (Leipzig: J. Klinkhardt).

The whole number of medical students in the universities of Germany during the summer semester of 1895 was 8,030, of whom 1,209 were at Munich, 1,080 at Berlin, 707 at Würzburg, 617 at Leipzig, 443 at Freiburg, 406 at Greifswald, 399 at Kiel, 338 at Breslau, 300 at Strassburg, 275 at Heidelberg, 246 at Königsberg, 245 at Marburg, 241 at Halle, 220 at Göttingen, 215 at Tübingen, 195 at Jena, 137 at Giessen, and 101 at Rostock. Thus Munich stands first numerically, and this superiority is due to its greater attractiveness for non-Bavarians, of whom there were 792, whereas at Berlin there were only 298 non-Prussians. During the winter semester of 1893-4 in German universities, 1,406 students received, on examination, the degree of M. D., of whom 100 were pronounced "sehr gut" (very good), 928 "gut" (good), and 378 "genügend" (sufficing). Of the first class there were at Leipzig 14, and of the second class 146, out of 201; at Munich, 12 and 111 out of 166; at Würzburg, 11 and 96 out of 135; while at Berlin there were none of the first class, and 111 of the second, out of the entire number, 169. These statistics would imply that the examination for a medical degree is more rigorous at Berlin than at the other German universities—assuming, of course, equal competence and diligence on the part of the students.

A very important moor find has recently been made on the island of Fünen in Denmark, whence so many remains of the Scandinavian iron age have come. These latest objects consist of seven swords, most of them bent together after the usual fashion, and a number of spears, both iron and bone. Unlike earlier specimens, these spears, especially the bone ones, are in an almost perfect state of preservation. Many of them still contain shafts so constructed as to prove that they must have been used for throwing. Of this fact no trace had before been found. Another novel feature lies in the receptacle itself, which is the site of a road dating from the iron age, and still in a good state of preservation. Its construction is very much like that of the best modern Danish stone roads, care having been taken to prevent spreading by the use of large stones along the sides.

—An officer in the Union army, who has lived for more than five years in Yokohama, makes the following curious observation in a recent letter to an American correspondent, apropos of the recent hostilities with China:

"The war has done one good thing. Several years ago the Buddhists had persuaded the authorities that Christianity made people disloyal to their ruler, the Mikado. During the war there were many Christians among the soldiers, and their officers watched them. The result was, that the watchers wrote home to their friends and their papers that the bravest and most loyal soldiers of the army were the Christians. They were to be depended on in camp and in field, they were not afraid to die, and never shrank from any duty to which they were called. Of course this changed public opinion in regard to them and disproved the statements of the [Buddhist] priests. Previously the Government was not pleased that the people should have the Scriptures; now the way is open and they want to make them all Christians. Anything that makes good soldiers is agreeable to the powers that be."

—In a paper recently read before the Boston Scientific Society Mr. Rotch of the Blue Hill Observatory makes interesting statements about high-altitude stations for meteorological observation. The first summit station in the world was that established in 1870 upon Mount Washington, at an elevation of 6,280 feet. Some remarkable observations have been made there, such, for instance, as a temperature of 50° below zero, during the progress of a gale blowing at 184 miles an hour. The station on Pike's Peak, 14,134 feet high, has been closed, and there are now but two summit stations in the United States where observations are made regularly, viz., at the Lick Observatory and at Blue Hill, near Boston. The highest meteorological station in the world is that maintained by Harvard College Observatory in Peru, at the summit of El Misti, 19,300 feet. It is visited several times a month by one of the staff of the Harvard Observatory below, at Arequipa, who attends to its self-registering instruments, checks the readings, and so forth. A splendid chain of high-altitude stations exists in France, including those on Mount Ventoux, 6,250 feet, and the Pic du Midi, 9,440 feet. The highest of the stations established by M. Vallot on or near Mount Blanc is at the Rochers des Bosses, 14,320 feet, which is provided with self-recording instruments capable of running two weeks without attention, and is in use during the summer. The Mount Blanc observatory of M. Janssen is not yet in operation; it has an altitude of 15,780 feet. The highest permanent observatory now in use in Europe is the Sonnblick station, 10,170 feet, in the Austrian Alps, which has given valuable results. Switzerland and Italy have well-located and equipped mountain stations; and the one on Ben Nevis, in England, though not so high, has given a ten years' unbroken series of hourly observations. Of course it is possible to send self-recording instruments up in balloons to a much greater height than a person could reach and be able to breathe. An altitude of ten miles and over has been reached by this means in France, and last July in Germany with very valuable results. Kites also have carried anemometers to considerable heights with good results. Dr. Berson last year reached an altitude of 30,000 feet, or nearly six miles, making from his balloon some very significant observations upon temperature and humidity, winds and clouds, in a seldom visited region. He is said to have suffered little from the diminished pressure of the atmosphere at this great height, probably because of his inhalation of oxygen from time to time.

—A British trade report on the employment of women, recently issued as a Parliamentary paper, reveals some unexpected facts in regard to the current condition of wage-earning women. Miss Collet, a member of the Labor Commission, who makes the report, states that in England out of 277 occupations, or trades, women are found in only 18, that there is a decrease in the number of married women working away from home, and that the main increase of women in occupations in England, of late years, has been in middle-class homes. It has been rashly assumed that the recent rapid increase in the number of women employed in special lines indicates commensurate general changes in the British field of employment for women. This is not exactly true. Miss Collet finds "that the industrial position of women varies with the degree of material prosperity of the men in the class to which they belong." As a matter of fact, the women in the families of men of small producing or earning power have always had to earn a portion of the fami-

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ly bread. But as the earning power of the men in certain classes increases, the family can be supported by the male earnings, and the greater comfort available in the home creates a class sentiment opposed to the wife at least being called on to earn a part of the fund she dispenses—with thrift or waste, as the case may be. With a still higher standard of comfort and growing prosperity, the tendency is to retain the services of the daughters in the home. Mechanical invention and scientific appliances have multiplied the number of men in England who can afford to support their daughters, at the same time that any *need* for the services of the latter has decreased; consequently, girls of the middle classes have entered the labor market in untold numbers, urged thereto by a higher standard of comfort (which has increased their wants), by a smaller field for domestic usefulness, and by diminished chances for marriage.

—In comparison (and to some extent in contrast) with this British report, special interest attaches to an extra Census Bulletin (No. 99), "Statistics of Occupation," which gives the number of males and females in the United States of ten years of age and over employed in gainful occupations. Compared with similar statistics for 1880, these figures indicate a wider development of employment among American than among English women. In 1880 the percentage of "gainful" males over ten to the whole number of that age was 78.70, and of females only 14.69. In 1890 the difference in round numbers, and in proportional increase, between males and females justifies what has been claimed for the greater productive and earning power of the new American woman. The respective figures are, for males, 77.28 (a slight loss of 1.42 per cent.), and for females, 16.98, a gain of 2.29 per cent. for the working woman. The growing industrial power of women is still more emphasized by stating the figures differently: thus, the numerical increase in wage-earners between 1880 and 1890 was over 5,300,000, and the percentage of increase 30.72; but the increase in the number of males was 4,076,000, or only 27.62 per cent., and of females 1,267,550, or 47.88 per cent. Elaborate tables show that the ratio of increase in professional occupations and in domestic and personal service is largely on the side of women, and while the extraordinary development of trade and transportation is evidenced in all the returns (the number of employees increased 78 per cent.), the percentage of increase for females under these two heads is especially large (263.25 per cent.), due mainly to the number of young women employed as bookkeepers, clerks, stenographers, typewriters, and saleswomen. It is worth notice that there has been a wholesome increase in the proportion of women engaged in a variety of occupations in which the personal equation especially counts. Thus, of the 219 specified occupations, women have entered into 217, the exceptions being "officers of the United States Army and Navy," "United States soldiers, sailors, and marines," although there are twenty-two occupations which claimed in 1890 only from one to ten women members. It appears, therefore, that, unlike her British sister, the American woman has found her way into almost every department of honest labor where special capacity or economic advantage has discovered an opening for her as a class, or her sex does not disqualify her as an individual worker.

—The latest number of the *Historische Zeitschrift* contains an article of fifty-four pages by the late Prof. Heinrich von Sybel, entitled "Neue Mittheilungen und Erklärungen zu Band 6 u. 7 der 'Begründung des Deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I.,'" in which he defends his account of the origin of the war of 1870 and replies to some of the strictures of his critics. The article, already issued by the Munich publisher in pamphlet form, is divided into six sections, of which the last two, treating of "Napoleon und Eugenie" and "Bismarcks Politik," are the longest and most important. It is a noteworthy and significant fact that in the seventh volume of Sybel's 'Founding of the German Empire,' in which the causes of the Franco-German war are fully discussed, scarcely any reference is made to the Empress Eugénie, and in the elaborate table of contents to the same volume (the work has unfortunately no index) there is not the slightest mention of her name. It is evident, therefore, that the historian does not think that she exerted any appreciable influence upon the course of events. The prominent political rôle assigned to her in Pierre de Lano's 'Après l'Empire,' as, for example, where it is said that, at her urgent request, Grammont kept from the Emperor all knowledge of Benedetti's despatch, Sybel regards as purely mythical; he also finds no satisfactory proof that she ever uttered the frivolous words so often attributed to her: "C'est ma guerre, ma petite guerre, la guerre à moi!" The two persons, in his opinion, chiefly responsible for the war were Gramont and Ollivier, who, after the appeal to arms had resulted in disaster, endeavored to throw this responsibility upon the "party of the Empress." Had France been victorious, these men would certainly have claimed all the honor for themselves. Napoleon, severely suffering from gout, stone, and a complication of kindred disorders, felt an earnest desire to preserve peace, and realized the force of Princess Mathilde's exclamation: "My God! are you going to walk into a war on such legs as those?" Eugénie, as Sybel states, was deeply embittered by her husband's infidelity, but he does not believe that her resentment converted her into a "passionate and heartless intrigante." At least he fails to discover any evidence of the truth of this accusation. In the section on "Bismarck's Politics" an interesting incident of the war of 1866 is narrated on the authority of the Crown Prince Friedrich. On July 24, just after the armistice had been concluded, and while the provisional peace of Nikolsburg was being negotiated, King William urged that Austria should be required to make a cession of territory even at the risk of a resumption of hostilities. Bismarck opposed this proposition, and in the course of the discussion remarked: "Every monarch should adopt the general principle and adhere to it, so far as possible, not to appoint as minister of foreign affairs any man who has not been on a battlefield and seen with his own eyes all the horrors involved in the word War."

—Father Lépicier's 'Indulgences: Their Origin, Nature, and Development' (London: Kegan Paul & Co.) is a disappointment. A good critical history of the subject from a believer's point of view would be welcome, but the present volume is an uncritical medley of doctrine, history, and pious reflection, unnecessary to stimulate the faith of the faithful, and calculated only to excite the derision of the unbeliever. A writer who takes most of his history from Fleury; who quotes (p. 200) a twelfth-century inscription as evidence of the practices of the sixth; who speaks of Islam as an infamous and superstitious worship paid to the devil (p. 207); who quotes St. Bernard (p. 217) in favor of technical indulgences when that doctor is using the word *indulgentia* in its ordinary sense of pardon; who accepts as genuine the forged letter of St. Ludger in 803 (p. 228), the fraudulent character of which was demonstrated two centuries ago by Fathers Morin and Papenbroek; who deliberately or ignorantly falsifies a passage from the canons of the Council of Vienne (p. 293), and who, when he cannot otherwise justify the changes in the theory and practice of the Church, assumes that in all cases it must be right because otherwise God would have allowed the Church to fall into error, which is impossible—such a writer is impervious to argument and unworthy of refutation. This is to be regretted, for indulgences have played so large a part in European history that a conscientious Catholic who would candidly resume and bring up to the existing state of critical research the work performed in the seventeenth century by Father Morin, would render a service to all parties.

RHODES'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850. By James Ford Rhodes. Vol. III., 1860-1862. Harper & Brothers. 8vo, pp. 659.

MR. RHODES'S third volume fully sustains the impression made by the best part of the first two. There is the same abundant and almost exhaustive collation of material, the same simplicity and directness of method, the same good judgment in the selection of topics for full treatment or for sketchy notice, the same calmness of temper and absence of passionate partisanship. He may fairly be said to be a pupil of the Gardiner school, and to have made the great English historian a model in subordinating the literary element to the judicial, and in compelling his readers to accept his guidance as that of a trustworthy pilot through the mazes of conflicting evidence and the struggles of opposing principles. The hot partisan will often protest at first at the charitable judgment of the motives or the recognition of the sincerity of those whom he has hated as enemies; but as the analysis of the evidence goes on, he finds himself yielding to the strong summing up; and even if he be not wholly convinced, he is filled with a solid respect for the judgment and temper with which the multitudinous facts are weighed.

The volume deals with the critical period from the election of Lincoln to the battle of Shiloh and the opening of McClellan's campaign on the Virginia peninsula. It therefore includes the actual secession of the Southern States, beginning with South Carolina, the conduct of Buchanan in relation to it while Cobb and Thompson and Floyd were members of his cabinet, and after these were replaced by the patriotic influence of Black and Stanton, of Dix and Holt. It covers the inauguration of Lincoln and the tentative measures of his opening administration, the perplexing debate as to the reinforcement of Fort Sumter, and the efforts to gain time by indirect diplomacy with Southern leaders. It gives us the dramatic opening of the war by the cannonade of the fort, and the outburst of fiery enthusiasm on both sides when once the die was cast. From this we pass to defeat at Bull Run, the pulling of ourselves together for the tremendous struggle whose proportions we now began

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to realize, the organization of the great armies which were to fight it out, the growing impatience at the delays of that first autumn of the war, the beginning of real work under the direct order of Lincoln and its first fruits in the glorious successes of Grant and Foote at Forts Henry and Donelson, and the beginning also of that tide of Western triumphs which, with occasional reflux, was still to sweep across the Gulf States and into the heart of North Carolina.

The period was that which fixed the policy of both sides and of all parties. It mustered the armies and showed what men could lead them. It settled the principles which were to guide our foreign policy and to direct our home Government. It laid the foundation of the financial measures which were to provide for an enormous and unprecedented expenditure. It disclosed the perils which accompany administration in such a time, and the necessity for sharp remedies against extravagance and peculation, however powerful in civil life or in military command might be the offenders.

As to all these matters the historian must have a well-defined point of view. As the reader follows the author in his candid elaboration of the views of conflicting parties and statesmen, he will be tempted to fear that the story may turn out to be only the annals of complicated events, only the reporter's faithful account of the acts and the arguments in the great debate. Mr. Rhodes has not thus abdicated his historical office, and it is a great merit in his book that he has distinctly recognized his duty to declare his principles of judgment and to apply them firmly. His full array of evidence and argument attests his judicial character and his tolerance towards men and their motives; but when the summing up is completed, he pronounces his judgment distinctly, and, in the good old language of the law, without fear, favor, or affection.

On the great issue of the rebellion he is a nationalist who holds that secession was revolution, in which the first assembling of armed men was an overt act of war. On the issues of national politics he holds to Mr. Lincoln's conservative Republicanism, which declared the quarrel to be over the single question whether slavery should be extended. Clinging firmly to the belief that the war was certain to end in emancipation, he still justifies the President in "going slow," and in trying to hold back the border States from secession, first, by refusing to precipitate the progress even of freedom, and later by leading the North to justify itself in the eyes of the world by offering compensated emancipation.

In dealing with men he does not shirk the duty of plain condemnation after the case is fully examined. Thus, Frémont in Missouri is found to be incompetent as a general, and a weak tool of peculators in his administration. Mr. Rhodes justifies the President's removal of him on these grounds, notwithstanding the popularity of his emancipation orders and the attachment to his person which ardent Republicans felt toward their former Presidential candidate. Cameron is adjudged to have been careless of economy in the War Department, and to have been blind to the advantages taken of the Government by fraudulent contractors. His removal from the Cabinet was a public necessity, and a proof of Lincoln's ability to act vigorously even when his personal feelings suffered severely under the test. McClellan is found to lack the aggressive qualities without which no one can be a real general, and to be condemned as incompetent by his absurd exaggerations of the opposing army, which, out of his 'Own Story,' are shown to have been the key to his dilatory conduct after September, 1861. Grant is recognized as manifesting from the first the qualities of a born soldier, and Lincoln is justified in retaining him in command notwithstanding many strong criticisms after the battle of Shiloh. In the situation of our armies and in the relations of the country to the civilized world, the historian rightly concludes that no other military man then showed the powerfully aggressive character which was demanded. It was absolutely necessary, after so long an inaction, that the national army should be led by one who would fight, and Lincoln is justified in his famous saying to objectors, "I can't spare this man; he fights." The alertness of a Napoleon, the strategic intellect of Cæsar, were greatly to be desired; but if all great qualities could not be combined, energetic action and indomitable fighting were all the more indispensable.

The author's plan does not include a detailed description of military events, but aims at such a general sketch of campaigns as shall make the ordinary reader follow clearly the larger outline and understand the loss or gain for either side in the progress of the war. He has, however, felt the necessity of attempting a fuller picture of the battles which were followed by important results, and has studied with striking success to group the incidents which are most telling in each engagement. In this way he has made very vivid and perfectly intelligible presentations of such engagements as that of the *Monitor* with the *Merrimac*, the battles of Bull Run, Fort Donelson, and Shiloh. They are not overloaded with tactical details, while they are true to the real military significance and proportion of parts; and the military man will approve the justness of the picture which the popular reader will find easy to comprehend and of thrilling interest.

In finance, Mr. Rhodes's standpoint is that of the advocates of a tariff for revenue as contrasted with theoretic protectionism, and of those who disbelieve the necessity of making paper a legal tender even in time of war. But while avowing this creed, he sees so plainly the embarrassments of the Congress of 1862, and states so fairly the arguments which overcame Mr. Chase's reluctance and brought him to the support of the legal-tender bill, that its warmest friends must admit that the means of forming a judgment of his own are offered to every reader.

The author's reference to his authorities is most conscientious, scrupulously giving credit for even the slightest assistance, so that the student is challenged to verify the evidence and to judge for himself whether the conclusions are sound. Yet direct quotation is only sparingly used, and the narrative is Mr. Rhodes's own, after maturely digesting the mass of facts which are to make its body or give it color. This method, showing strongly the influence of the modern ideas of scientific research, must be admitted to be in the spirit of our age, which is not content with authority, and demands that all important conclusions shall be shown in direct connection with the evidence on which they are based. In this case, the result is a work which will be most authoritative with those who are most familiar with the original material for the history of the civil war.

The character and personality of Mr. Lincoln develop in his acts, illumined as they are by the complete knowledge of the man which we now possess. His awkward and homely exterior, his broad humor and plain speech, made a veil behind which he was completely hidden from those who met him casually. It is one of the most curious facts in personal biography that nearly the whole body of men who thought themselves near enough to him to judge him accurately, formed a contemptuous opinion which now overwhelmingly attests their own lack of true acumen and insight. It seemed that only those knew him who were far enough away to see his general conduct and policy apart from his personal peculiarities, or those who were so near that by intimate contact they experienced the power of his will over theirs and the domination of his lucid and sagacious intellect.

Mr. Seward's relations to his chief are only a striking proof of our assertion. In March, 1861, considering the estimate of Lincoln by the half-acquainted, and the relations of the Secretary of State to parties and to affairs, it is in no degree strange that Mr. Seward should have assumed the rôle of an authoritative mentor. The "Thoughts for the President's consideration" which Nicolay and Hay have made so notorious, would not have appeared an absurd assumption of leadership to Senator Sumner or Senator Wade, however they might differ from his views. The relation was more like that between Daniel Webster and Zachary Taylor, and struck nobody at the time as unnatural. It is only from our present measure of the men, especially of Lincoln, that the incident gets its amusing character. If Zachary Taylor had been President four years instead of four months, it is possible that the relations of Webster to him would have changed as much. Who knows?

In this matter, as in the half-negotiations with the Southern commissioners concerning the evacuation of Sumter, Mr. Rhodes seems too severe on Secretary Seward. In the latter case the facts were that Anderson had reported that an army of 20,000 disciplined men would be required to relieve the fort and to hold it (p. 325). Gen. Scott reported that evacuation was almost inevitable (p. 326), and later gave the formal opinion that Anderson should be withdrawn (p. 327). All of the Cabinet but Blair concurred in the opinion (*ibid.*). Lincoln did not decide, but, while holding the matter in abeyance, gave his friends to understand that he acquiesced in the opinion of his Cabinet. In the light of these facts, when the Southern Commissioners were trying to "play with Seward" for delay, and Mr. Lincoln was cognizant of the correspondence through Judge Campbell, the Secretary's conduct in gaining delay for his side also by indicating the actual belief of the whole Administration that the fort would be evacuated, does not seem the "rash assumption" that Mr. Rhodes regards it. He truthfully indicated the actual expectation of all, but made no explicit promises; and it would be pushing the rule of candor too far to assert that these quasi-belligerents who were playing their own astute game, had any grounds for complaint of Seward's diplomacy. When the President, contrary to his own as well as the general expectation, determined to try to provision the fort, his Secretary stood loyally by him. It was a right thing for Mr. Lincoln, in view of a ripening public sentiment, to make the effort in spite of Scott's and Anderson's adverse opinion. The motive was a reason of state, not of military affairs, and he was in his own province. The cordial acquiescence of his Secretary marked the recognition of his true

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leadership. The whole affair was honorable to both.

This is almost the sole instance in which the conclusions of our historian seem open to question. In general, we find his reasoning (as we said in the beginning) compelling our assent, and the exception may be taken as proof of the rule. We shall look with earnest interest for the succeeding volumes, sure of a strong grasp of the whole subject, and confident that, within the compass he has prescribed for himself, it is not probable that we shall see a more complete or better balanced history of our great civil war than that which Mr. Rhodes is giving us. We hope that he will come back from his European tour recuperated, in full strength for the fulfilment of his important labor.

MARSHAL NEY AND HIS DOUBLE.

Historic Doubts as to the Execution of Marshal Ney. With numerous illustrations. By James A. Weston, Rector of the Church of the Ascension, Hickory, N. C.; Major Thirty-third N. C. Regiment, Confederate States Army; Chaplain Catawba County (N. C.) Veterans' Association; Honorary Member of the North Carolina Historical Society, etc. New York: Thomas Whittaker. 1895.

AFTER a peculiarly picturesque or conspicuous person dies, either in the due course of nature or by violence, it often happens that years afterwards a vague, unfounded rumor gets abroad that he is still alive. The regicide, John Bradshaw, for instance, it was said, lived in the island of Jamaica long after the Restoration, and in Hollis's memoirs is given the fictitious epitaph which was engraved, according to the story, upon a cannon near Martha Bay. Yet there is record of his burial in Westminster Abbey, when the Commonwealth still endured, and of the disinterment and hanging of his corpse when the Stuarts returned to power. In more recent times we have heard that Louis XVI.'s son lived among the French Canadians near Plattsburg long after his supposed death; that Webster, who murdered Parkman, was not hung, and that Wilkes Booth was not shot. And now comes another story of the same character as the others, to the effect that Marshal Ney was not shot, that he had a mock execution, and that he escaped to America and died in his bed in North Carolina in 1846. Thus far a stray magazine article and a number of newspaper articles have been the only things printed on the subject, but Mr. James A. Weston, a North Carolina clergyman and Confederate major, now publishes a book of 300 pages to prove that an old soldier who went by the name of Peter Stuart Ney, and taught school in the country districts of Missouri and the Carolinas, was none other than Napoleon's great marshal. He looked like Marshal Ney, he said he was Marshal Ney (often when he was drunk and occasionally when he was sober), and some people thought he was Marshal Ney. The case is interesting, even extraordinary, and it is but just to say that it is better constructed than the case of the Tichborne claimant himself. We will give specimens of the best evidence produced by Mr. Weston as briefly as possible.

Chapman Levy, a South Carolina lawyer, said he was told by some French refugees that they recognized in P. S. Ney, at Georgetown, S. C., the original Marshal Ney. Mrs. Mary C. Dalton, who was P. S. Ney's pupil when she was a little girl, says he told her twice, "when perfectly sober," that he was Marshal Ney, and he described to her his escape and flight to Charleston. The editor of the Danville, Va., *Times* reports his sister as saying that P. S. Ney on Saturdays, when he was drunk, used to say he was Marshal Ney. J. W. Sanders of Iredell County, N. C., reports two Germans, named respectively Snyder and Barr, who had seen Marshal Ney, as declaring, when they saw P. S. Ney, that he was the Marshal. Several persons testify that these Germans were men of good character. Col. John A. Rogers of Florence, N. C., describes P. S. Ney as fainting when he read in a newspaper in 1821 that Napoleon was dead. That night he burned a quantity of his papers, and the next morning was found with his throat cut. "The blade of the knife that did the work was broken in the wound. This probably saved his life." Mrs. G. N. Beale of Washington, D. C., says she saw Marshal Ney's picture thrown upon a screen at a Stoddard lecture, and exclaimed at once that it was Peter Ney, whom she knew in her youth at Beattie's Ford, N. C. Thomas D. Graham, Davidson College, N. C., nursed P. S. Ney in his last illness, and heard him say four or five times that he was Marshal Ney. He concludes his testimony thus:

"About three o'clock in the afternoon Dr. Locke [P. S. Ney's doctor] returned. He was much affected. 'Mr. Ney,' said he, 'you have but a short time to live, and we would like to know from your own lips who you are before you die.' Mr. Ney, perfectly calm and rational, raised himself up on his elbow, and looking Dr. Locke full in the face, said, 'I am Marshal Ney of France.' Two or three hours later he died."

Now all this is strange enough, but it has failed to identify P. S. Ney with Marshal Ney. If he had been the real Marshal, seeking to conceal his identity, why did he take the name of Ney? Why did he say he was Marshal Ney if he wished to pass as another man? Because a number of people believed him is no reason for our believing him. He played his part to the very end, but it is quite possible for a man to continue a deception even with death staring him in the face, and we have many instances of it in the case of murderers, palpably guilty, who declare themselves innocent just before they are hung. As for the saying *In vino veritas*, which Mr. Weston lays much stress upon, a moderate experience will convince any one that a man in his cups is often fully master of his tongue. Indeed, some men lie most when they are drunk. It is inconceivable that so extraordinary a man as Marshal Ney should have lived in this country and disclosed his identity without soon becoming known positively and proclaimed to all the world. And if Peter S. Ney was Marshal Ney, why did he stay here? When Louis Philippe was made king, a wave of Bonapartism swept over France. Soult, Napoleon's Marshal and Ney's friend, was Minister of War. Napoleon's body was carried to Paris from St. Helena. And all this time Marshal Ney was teaching school in the backwoods of America! It is true that a sentence of death stood against him in France; but does any one doubt the reception that would have been accorded him if he had suddenly come to life again? And is it credible that the sixty or more people who must have been in the secret if there was a sham execution, kept silence when the opportunity offered of bringing him home in triumph and under such romantic circumstances?

Mr. Weston says that an unsuccessful effort was made about this time to have Ney's sentence rescinded; but we fail to see how this circumstance alone was sufficient to prevent a man of Marshal Ney's daring from taking his chances of a return when popular sentiment was so strongly in his favor. Such was the affection for his memory during the reign of the Citizen King that his widow was granted a pension of 25,000 francs a year, and a monument was ordered to be erected in his honor.

There are weak points in the evidence Mr. Weston produces. None of his witnesses appear to have had pictures of Marshal Ney before them when they wrote their testimony. It is true they knew P. S. Ney only as an old man, but he wore no beard and was well preserved. The likenesses of the younger Marshal would have been a fair basis for comparison. One old lady thought the face of Marshal Ney flashed by a magic-lantern upon a screen was the face of P. S. Ney, but it does not appear that she ever deliberately and calmly compared her recollection of the one Ney with an effigy of the other.

Marshal Ney was born in Saar-Louis, and on one side was of German origin, and he could speak German, we are told; but all his life he was a Frenchman, speaking practically nothing but French. How is it, then, that P. S. Ney spoke English with a brogue, as some of the witnesses state, or with a German accent, as others say? It may be that P. S. Ney was really a French refugee, but we look in vain in the writings he left behind him, and which Mr. Weston has reproduced, for a single French idiom or Frenchman's expression. Did Marshal Ney know English? It is possible that he knew something of it, but P. S. Ney, even if he had an accent, spoke it and wrote it with a facility which convinces us that he had had an acquaintance with it from his youth. Marshal Ney was an ill-educated man—Napoleon and others have affirmed it. Could he have acquired languages, dead and living, and qualified himself for teaching school after he had passed his maturity? He had great talents, unquestionably, but they did not lie in the same channel as the talents of the schoolteacher, P. S. Ney.

Having said this much, it is only fair to quote a remarkable letter which appears in Mr. Weston's book. It comes "from a foreign gentleman of high character and position," and it reached Mr. Weston after his book had gone to press. It may be found on the last page of the last appendix, and is as follows:

"I am acquainted with the history of Peter S. Ney prior to his escape to the United States of America. Many years ago, when I was a young man, I visited your country for the express purpose of communicating with him. I found him in Rowan County, North Carolina, teaching school. . . . I never saw him afterwards. The identity of Peter S. Ney has been a profound secret. He was a fugitive from justice, and many persons in France were accessory to his escape. If Peter S. Ney had revealed his identity in America, his friends in France who aided in his escape would have suffered death. Even now, perhaps, his identity cannot fully be made known. . . . He was born January 10, 1769."

Marshal Ney was born on that day. The name of the writer of the letter, Mr. Weston says, cannot be disclosed, and is known only to his publisher and himself. One mystery does not explain another. Why should not the author of this letter disclose P. S. Ney's identity? Why should he conceal his own? We have no right to doubt that Mr. Weston received this letter, but we are justified in rejecting it as proof.

A History of the Novel Previous to the Seventeenth Century. By F. M. Warren. Henry Holt & Co.

THE difficulties besetting a differentiation of the novel, in the modern English meaning of

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that word, from every other form of fiction known to Europe previous to the seventeenth century are not exaggerated in Mr. Warren's introductory remarks. They are, indeed, rather understated, for his book is a history of a thing that had no established existence until just about the moment when he leaves off. The modern novel is a product of a civilization well past kicking and plunging, settled down to a jog trot, and just now, perhaps, as in the era of its remote Hellenistic progenitors, significant of a general decadence. It came into life as human imagination weakened under the pressure of prosaic intelligence, with the diffusion of a general incredulity about heroes and magic and monsters, and in response to a demand for fiction that should reproduce life as it is known to the masses, or, at least, as it may be easily accepted by the common understanding. During a happy thousand years or so the joyous populace of Europe appears to have loved best fiction that scorned possibility, that made its eyes start and its mouth gape. In matter, it cared nought for the real except when that was also ribald, and generation after generation listened patiently to interminable rigmarole about the loves and wars of semi-mythical heroes, the monotony being interrupted chiefly by the ingenious device of changing names and scenes. With that genial public an old story was not equivalent to a tedious one, and at the fiftieth rendering it is recorded of no man that he was rude enough to mention that he had heard it several times before. When it is added that the sense or instinct for form was rare even among scholars, that no one dreamed of exacting a central motive or dominating interest, that characterization was accidental, not vital, it is clear that mediæval and Renaissance fictitious compositions were not even novels called by another name.

Mr. Warren's devoted quest from the Greek, through *chansons*, *lais*, romances of chivalry, and pastorals, resembles, therefore, the perchance engaging, but generally unfruitful, hunt for a needle in a haystack, and, apart from interesting information by the way, leads to nothing but an assurance of the unlikeness between the things looked for and found. Besides assuming the embarrassment of a special plea, he has foregone the advantage (for lucidity) of a definite outline of the chief cycles of romance connected, however loosely, with the legends of Troy, Alexander, Arthur, and Charlemagne. By darting to and fro among these immortal but mixed traditions, leaping forward and harking back on the supposed trail of his novel, he has succeeded in imparting to his treatise much of that air of inconsequence, contradiction, and vain repetition which distinguishes the subjects of his investigation. Conscious of treading debatable ground, his positive assertions are few, and those not dogmatic. He affirms that Montalvo's Spanish compilation of the 'Amadis of Gaul' legends (1470) is "our first modern novel," but his arguments and many of his facts cast grave doubts on the affirmation. He says "it is conceded on all sides that Spain gave birth to the romance of chivalry." Even at the risk of seeming a pariah lifting contentious voice in unbounded wilds, we suggest that Spain did nothing of the sort in the sense of originating or creating. Instead of regarding 'Amadis' as an independent composition very obscurely derived from the great cycles, we prefer to look upon it as a late artificial imitation, and a supremely tiresome one, and fail to see why it is any nearer to a modern novel than the 'Morte Darthur' of Malory, whose name is not so much as mentioned in Mr. Warren's index. In Malory's compilation his personality is very evident; however imperfect and elusive, the artist's hand moulding rough material is frequently perceptible. Moreover, there is so much unity that the gradual accretions may be easily separated from the pure, natural legendary growth. To say that, "unlike prose versions of the Arthurian legend, the career of Amadis points a moral," is to be strangely blind to the indirect but none the less impressive moral derivable from the tales of Launcelot and Tristram. Finally, if Amadis was "the first pattern of a true and perfect knight," what was Sir Galahad? And if "the thirteenth century did not ask for any presentation of absolute purity of mind and body," how did it come to adopt the vision of that bright boy knight in shining armor seen by Walter Map, court poet to Henry II. of England?

This cold indifference shown by Mr. Warren to the English novel's ancestor of race is extended to the purely Gallic *fabliaux* and the Italian *novella*, though we have been accustomed to believe that they too count for something in the evolution of fiction. His neglect of peers and equals may most easily be ascribed to our author's desire to claim everything for Spain. To Italy he allows chronological precedence in the pastoral romance; but for form, spirit, subsequent influence, the glory is given to Spain, summed up in Montemayor's 'Diana.' Arriving at the picaresque novel, we quarrel no more with Mr. Warren. If the term invention may be applied rightly to any form of literature, give it, by all means, to 'Lazarillo de Tormes'; and, though we are not quite sure what the author means by saying that "it completed the circle of novelistic action," we feel, to quote him again, that that should be "conceded on all sides." The literature which he has been at such pains to explore is inexpressibly monotonous and dreary. It is without form and void of ideas, and its interest and value are more properly linguistic and philological than literary. No human being could make an account of it entertaining, and the grind of reading it may be inferred from Mr. Warren's comment (pathetic in view of what he has gone through)—"The two *picaresco* novels ['Lazarillo de Tormes' and 'Guzman de Alfarache'] of the sixteenth century, are the only examples of all the many romances of that time which can be read at the present day for themselves alone."

Municipal Government in Great Britain. By Albert Shaw. New York: The Century Co. 1895.

MUCH of what is of most general interest in this book has already appeared in various periodicals, and has been received almost with enthusiasm. We have become so much accustomed to associate waste, jobbery, and inefficiency with the government of our large cities that accounts of the clean, economical, and brilliant management of the affairs of Glasgow and Birmingham come to us as a kind of revelation—harbingers, so to speak, of the future that may lie before our own towns. In this book, however, Mr. Shaw does not confine himself to panegyric, but furnishes us with a quantity of well-digested information as to the nature and operation of the British municipality—information which is totally inaccessible to most American readers, but which is of the utmost importance to them. It would be agreeable to us and to our readers were we to select from the book those exhilarating passages which depict the present and future glories of London and Manchester and Birmingham; but these passages have been already so widely read and copied as to be familiar. The natural effect of such glowing accounts is to suggest to Americans the question: "Why can we not receive all these beauties and conveniences and advantages from our own municipalities?" and we shall devote our space to answering this question. The answer may, indeed, be found in Mr. Shaw's pages, but we incline to think that he has not put the question fairly to himself, or fully comprehended the causes which have produced such differences as exist between the municipal institutions of this country and of Europe.

The most fundamental of these differences is very clearly stated by Mr. Shaw. It is the important and honored part played in the English system by the town councillors, and the despised and insignificant position occupied by the corresponding functionaries in our own country. A corresponding fact is the honorary position of the mayor in England contrasted with the vast powers which are lodged in the American officer bearing the same title. Mr. Shaw cannot understand why such autocratic powers should be conferred upon a single person. He says that it is unrepublican, and that "the one-man power is on the decline everywhere in this age." We ought to follow the example of the English and exalt our aldermen, instead of reducing their activity to the humblest affairs. He urges, rather hastily, that if a powerful city council cannot be trusted, the fault is with popular institutions. It will give the people, he maintains, as good a government as they deserve to have. It gives the English cities excellent government; why should it not produce the same result here?

The answer to this question may be stated in two words. England is still an aristocratic society; America ceased to be one more than half a century ago. We cannot enlarge upon this difference further than to say summarily that the direction of Government falls, in a community where aristocratic traditions prevail, into the hands of men of some distinction, while in a democracy it falls into the hands of men who please the common people. It may prove to be the case, eventually, that the common people will select as their legislators and rulers men eminent for probity and wisdom; that is the goal toward which we are struggling. But, so far, it is undeniable that democratic government has shown itself corrupt and wasteful to such a degree as to make necessary a resort to the "one-man power." We do not know what Mr. Shaw means by calling it unrepublican. "An two men ride of a horse, one must ride behind." We know of few wars that have been successfully prosecuted when conducted by a committee of generals, and most great business enterprises prosper under autocratic management. Undoubtedly there is much room for division of labor; and when a wise manager finds that he has a competent subordinate, he leaves him in control of his department. But, inasmuch as all people cannot be rulers, it does not appear to be more unrepublican for them to delegate the power to one of their number rather than to several.

That Great Britain is still an aristocracy, so far as municipal government is concerned, is proved by Mr. Shaw's statements. If the qualifications of voters in New York city were the same as in Glasgow, for instance, four-fifths of our voters would be disfranchised. We cannot state the details given by Mr. Shaw, but in a

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general way it may be said that no one who has not paid taxes can vote at a municipal election in Great Britain. No doubt it may be claimed that all the residents of New York pay taxes, but they do not know it. The occupants of tenements are not aware that their rents have any connection with municipal expenditure; but the occupants of tenements in Glasgow or Birmingham are not ignorant upon this point. If more money is spent by the city government, they have their attention called to it whenever they pay their rents, and this single fact is of great political importance. Moreover, as Mr. Shaw points out, the requirement of the payment of taxes disfranchises a large class in the foreign cities.

"At least one-third of the householders and theoretical voters of Glasgow never appear on the municipal or parliamentary registration lists. . . . The whole body of men who are ignorant, vicious, and irresponsible is practically outside the pale of politics in Glasgow and Edinburgh, Dundee and Aberdeen. . . . The English municipal electorate excludes in practice nearly all the unmarried men, all floating laborers and lodging-house sleepers, and nearly all the serving class."

It is hardly necessary to say that such exclusions as this would make the problem of governing American cities a very different matter from what it is. In view of these exclusions it is not surprising that "the exploitation of the votes of the ignorant, vicious, and indifferent in English cities by demagogues or party agents is so extremely difficult that it does not count for anything at all in election results."

In the same line with these facts are to be ranged the paucity of elective offices in England compared with their multiplicity here, and our system of paying salaries for services which receive no pecuniary compensation in England. Considering all these vital and fundamental differences in our institutions, it seems absurd to suppose that the granting of greater powers to our aldermen would result in any approximation to the results obtained in England. Nor are we quite satisfied to take Mr. Shaw's word for the value of these results. We apprehend that there are seamy sides in British municipal government which Mr. Shaw's buoyant optimism has overlooked. The Manchester ship canal, which was to cost $25,000,000, required thrice that sum for its completion, and hardly pays operating expenses; but Mr. Shaw says that it is a monument of civic faith and energy, and will result in vast prosperity in the twentieth century. Meanwhile it results in a debt of $100 per capita to the inhabitants of Manchester. In 1872, before Mr. Chamberlain became Mayor, the debt of Birmingham was $2,500,000. It is now $40,000,000. But the community is richer by reason of this indebtedness, Mr. Shaw cheerfully declares, to the extent of twice or thrice this amount. So reasoned the people of the Australian colonies concerning their investments of borrowed capital, but they found themselves suddenly bankrupt. So have reasoned many of our Western communities, and have never comprehended why they came to grief. It is well to provide for posterity, but if the bills are left for posterity to pay, perhaps it would rather be consulted in the matter. It is conceivable that England may yet become involved in disastrous wars and suffer from declining trade. In such a contingency it might be found that the brilliant investments of her modern municipal governments were not so productive as had been anticipated, and that the policy of paying as you go would have been more judicious.

Aus meiner Zeit: Lebenserinnerungen. Von Friedrich Pecht. 2 Bände. Munich: Verlagsanstalt für Kunst und Wissenschaft.

THE author of these charming reminiscences began his career as an artist, and forty years ago enjoyed considerable distinction in Germany, especially as a portrait-painter; but, as he himself frankly confesses, it was the bias of early education and accidental circumstances, rather than any decided bent of genius, that led him to the choice of this profession. He was born October 2, 1814, in the picturesque and historic town of Constance in the Grand Duchy of Baden. The family was of East Prussian and more remotely, perhaps, of Swedish origin. His father was a man of culture, and was pursuing his theological studies in the University of Würzburg when the French invasion under Jourdan, in 1796, caused the Prince Bishop and his clerical court to flee in a panic. The young student seized this apparently not unwelcome opportunity to throw off his cassock and to start a book-shop at Constance as a branch of the then famous establishment of Rieger in Augsburg. About a dozen years later he married a Swiss maiden, the youngest daughter of the Amman Gänzli of the Canton of Thurgau, a remarkably clever and vivacious woman, with an inexhaustible fund of family traditions and personal recollections, which she was fond of relating, and some of which her son has recorded in the first chapter of his autobiography, thus carrying the reader back to the period before the French Revolution, when Thurgau was still under the imperious and oppressive tyranny of Berne. Among other incidents she remembers celebrating the emancipation from this galling yoke by dancing with other children round the village "tree of freedom" and singing "Ça ira, ça ira ça." Pecht himself states that he distinctly remembers the great inundation and famine that desolated portions of Baden and Eastern Switzerland in the summer of 1817, when he was scarcely three years old; and from that date his memory of events, comprising his experiences as a schoolboy and the earliest artistic impressions produced by the fine specimens of Renaissance and Gothic architecture in his native city, seems to be wonderfully vivid.

One of the most attractive features of these volumes is the admirable skill with which the author has woven into the narration clear and concise characterizations of the many distinguished persons whom he met in Munich, Dresden, Leipzig, Berlin, Vienna, Venice, Milan, Rome, Paris, London, and other places during the half century from 1833 to 1885. There is hardly an artist or literary man of eminence in Germany, belonging to the present or preceding generation, whom he did not know more or less intimately, and of whom he does not give, with a few bold and masterly strokes of the pen, a most lively and life-like portraiture. In 1839 he went to Paris, where he remained three years as one of the 120 pupils of Delacroix, whom he praises as "a very strict but excellent instructor." Here he met his old friend Heinrich Laube, who had just made a tour through France and was filled with enthusiasm for everything French, and through whom he became acquainted with Heinrich Heine and Richard Wagner. He even painted Heine's portrait, and enjoyed during the sittings the brilliant though often frivolous wit and venomous sarcasm of the self-expatriated German poet. Pecht knew the 'Buch der Lieder' almost by heart, and felt the irresistible charm of these lyrics, but had not yet learned to appreciate the truth of Sheridan's famous couplet concerning "easy writing." He remarked one day on the pleasure it must give the poet to dash off such delightful verses. "I meant well with my asinine compliment, but fared ill; with a glance of supreme contempt he replied: 'If you only knew how often I have filed away at a single one of those verses for days and even weeks!'"

Of Wagner, who was then suffering the greatest privations while composing "Rienzi" and "The Flying Dutchman," and vainly striving for recognition in Paris, Pecht speaks in terms of sincere sympathy and warm admiration. The unflinching courage and firm confidence with which he pursued his lofty purpose, the incomparable energy and elasticity of his nature, which supported him under the severest trials, are described as beyond all praise. This unconquerable force of will and faith in his star stood him in great stead on several occasions, and especially when the first performance of one of his pieces in a concert, upon which he had built the fondest hopes, proved to be an utter fiasco, owing to the imperfect training of the orchestra, which converted the sublimest harmonies into shrieking discords. On the New Year's eve of 1841, Pecht and a few other artists resolved to give the Wagners a surprise party. They bought a basket of champagne, a quantity of cold provisions, cakes and sweetmeats, and climbed four flights of stairs to the attic, where Wagner and his wife were sitting alone and apparently forgotten in the general festivity. The unexpected visitors were joyfully received, and Wagner, under the cheering effect of the kind attention and the brisk champagne, leaped upon a chair and improvised in delightful doggerel a New Year's discourse, full of happy hits at every person present, without sparing himself. He went on in this style for half an hour or more without the slightest hesitation, and kept the table in a constant roar of laughter. Pecht declares that he, at least, never heard so good an improvisation, except once, and that was by Emanuel Geibel at a dinner given him six years later in the famous Dresden restaurant, "Findlaters Schlösschen," and although Geibel's verses were more finished, they were hardly equal to Wagner's in pat allusions and flashes of wit and pure spontaneity. As he was about to return to Germany, Pecht found himself stranded in Paris, having lent all the money for his journey to the now wholly insolvent Wagner, but was generously set afloat by a young German merchant and accomplished flutist named Brix, who also belonged to the small circle of the composer's friends and admirers. Instead of the much-needed cash, says Pecht, "I received a long letter from Wagner from Meudon, whither he had fled to escape his creditors, entreating me to procure for him a position as organist or something of the sort, in order that he might finally find relief from this everlasting pressure of poverty." The tone of the letter betrayed a state of despondency and desperation quite incompatible with his usual sturdy self-reliance and irrepressible optimism, and even suggested thoughts of suicide. A year later his "Rienzi" had met with immense success at Dresden, and he had succeeded Morlacchi as conductor of the royal opera in that city.

In 1848 Pecht went to Frankfort with the intention of painting a large picture of the Parliament, and thus immortalizing that famous representative body. For this purpose he was diligent in attending the sessions of the Diet, which were held in St. Paul's Church, a massive rotunda with pillared galleries on three sides and marvellous effects of light and

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shade. A national Parliament, however, does not fulfil its whole mission by merely looking picturesque, and Pecht became so disgusted with the puerility of its proceedings that, if he had been a poet, he would have found it difficult not to write satire; as it was, he abandoned the plan of celebrating a great historic event on a big canvas, and turned his pencil to the easier task of caricature. Although now in the eighty-first year of his age, he shows no perceptible diminution of his mental and physical vigor, and as art-critic of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* and editor of the illustrated art journal *Kunst für Alle*, he is still as active and energetic as any man of middle life.

A Manual of Public International Law. By Thomas Alfred Walker, M.A., LL.D., Fellow and Lecturer of Peterhouse, Cambridge. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THE primary object of this book, as defined by the author, is to furnish "students commencing to read public international law" with a "text-book which, whilst excluding unnecessary detail and mere theoretic discussion, might well serve as a fairly comprehensive general introduction to detailed study of the subject." As the author is a lecturer, and has confessedly found no English treatise that fully satisfies the conditions thus defined, he must have been conscious of the fact that his task was not an easy one. To avoid, in a manual primarily designed for students, both "unnecessary detail and mere theoretic discussion," involves the exercise of a large measure of discrimination and judgment, as well as the command of simple, lucid, and precise forms of expression.

The present work does not disclose the possession by its author, in a high degree, of these qualifications. The style is neither easy nor precise, and is often marred by mannerisms; and there are sometimes substantial inaccuracies and omissions which might, perhaps, have been avoided if he had entered more fully, or at any rate more carefully, into details. As an illustration of our meaning, we will take what the author says on the important subject of the free navigation of international rivers. After referring to a number of treaties by which such navigation has been secured, he declares that, "although the doctrine of the freedom of navigation of great rivers has advanced in general favor, the new order has arisen by virtue of particular treaty entered into by the interested nations, not by the outright recognition of a general law, and the right of riparian states to regulate the traffic has been, in each instance, formally acknowledged"; and he further declares that "in no case have we witnessed the recognition of any *natural* right such as that which the United States, in harmony with her earlier Mississippi experiences, asserted in the navigation of the St. Lawrence in 1824." Turning to Article 26 of the treaty between the United States and Bolivia of May 13, 1858, we find the following declaration: "In accordance with fixed principles of international law, Bolivia regards the rivers Amazon and La Plata, with their tributaries, as highways or channels opened by nature for the commerce of all nations." While this declaration refutes the general statement of the author as to the non-recognition of any international, or of any natural, right, it can scarcely be maintained that there has been a formal recognition in each instance of the right of riparian states to regulate "traffic." In the treaty of peace of 1783, the United States and Great Britain, on the supposition that the Mississippi was navigable in British jurisdiction, made the following simple and unqualified agreement: "The navigation of the river Mississippi, from its source to the ocean, shall for ever remain free and open to the subjects of Great Britain and the citizens of the United States." By Article 26 of the Treaty of Washington of 1871, the same governments agreed to the free navigation by their citizens or subjects, in perpetuity, of the rivers St. Lawrence, Yukon, Porcupine, and Stikine, subject to any laws and regulations of the riparian government "not inconsistent with such privilege of free navigation." This is far from stipulating for a right to regulate traffic. It merely secures a limited right to regulate navigation. It does not refer to traffic.

Under the head of exceptions to the territorial jurisdiction, we find the following rule: "Foreign sovereigns travelling within a state in their proper character, together with their personal attendants, are held exempt from local jurisdiction." Under this rule Mr. Walker cites the famous case of the Parlement Belge, but he does not refer to the sweeping effect given to that decision in the recent case of Mighell v. The Sultan of Johore, decided by the Court of Appeal in November, 1893, in which it was held that the defendant, though he came to England and lived there, not in his proper character, but as Albert Baker, under which disguise he became entangled with the plaintiff, could not, when he asserted in court his sovereign character, be required to answer in a suit for breach of promise of marriage and for the return of certain jewels.

In the course of his discussion of territorial jurisdiction, Mr. Walker introduces the much controverted and much misunderstood case of Martin Koszta; and his conclusion is that while the American Government "may have been actuated by a desire to save a human life," "their zeal for humanity outran their regard for law and the independence of foreign nations." Whether, or to what extent, this conclusion can be justified, it is not our purpose to inquire; but it is certain that Mr. Walker bases it upon an Austrian pretension which that government failed to substantiate. "Citizens of Austria might," he says, "under capitulation between Austria and the Porte, be lawfully seized by the Austrian consul at Smyrna for offences committed within the Austrian dominions against Austrian law, and Martin Koszta was so seized." If this be so, it is remarkable that Austria never produced the text of any capitulation that would justify the seizure; and it is quite as remarkable that, if such a capitulation existed, the method should have been adopted of suddenly seizing Koszta and throwing him into the sea, where a boat's crew lying in wait picked him up and conveyed him on board an Austrian man-of-war. If this was a lawful, it could scarcely have been the regular, mode of procedure. But it is a fact that four years previously Austria, instead of claiming a right of her own to seize or arrest, demanded of the Porte the extradition of Koszta, together with that of Kossuth and other Hungarian refugees then on Ottoman soil. The Porte then decided that the capitulations with Austria did not require the surrender of political offenders. In this decision Great Britain and France supported the Ottoman Government; and when, being again in Turkey, Koszta was seized, the Turkish Government protested against the act as unlawful and as a violation of its sovereign rights, but did not protest against the conduct of the American functionaries at Smyrna. It is true that Koszta, as Mr. Walker intimates, did not at the time of his seizure have an American passport. But he had a *tezkereh*—a kind of passport or safe-conduct—which had been furnished him by the United States consul at Smyrna, in accordance with the practice lawfully observed by foreign consuls in Turkey in respect to persons whom they received into their protection.

There are evidences that the habit of publishing students' manuals which are at the same time to be valuable to the general reader, is invading the domain of international law, which has heretofore been fairly exempt from it. With the exception of Lawrence's 'Handbook,' it has not as yet produced in that domain any publication of special merit. The present work of Mr. Walker is, in our opinion, distinctly inferior, even for a student's use, to his 'Science of International Law,' published two years ago.

Men and Women of the Time: A Dictionary of Contemporaries. Fourteenth edition, revised and brought down to the present time by Victor G. Plarr, Librarian of King's College. London and New York: George Routledge & Sons. 1895.

THE first edition of this well-known work appeared in 1852 and contained three hundred titles. The present edition contains somewhat fewer biographies (2,300) than the immediately preceding, which showed a large, and not always judicious, increase of more than seven hundred names over the twelfth edition. Four hundred prominent persons have passed away since the publication of the edition of 1891. This work retains its distinctly English character, and is in no proper sense a general dictionary of contemporaries. Of the biographies included 312 are from the Continent and 184 from the United States. It is curious to note the proportion of representatives of the different nations as a possible illustration of the relative influence in politics, literature, and art which these countries exert upon English thought. There are 120 Frenchmen, 77 Germans, 31 Italians, and 16 Austrians; while the remaining countries of Europe (including Scandinavia, Russia, Turkey, and Spain) contribute 67 names. The biographies of titled persons and artists, including actors and musicians, exhibit fewer omissions than those of statesmen, philologists, and scientists, though the last-named class is more fully represented than the two former.

The book is singularly deficient as a guide to the public men of the Continent. In France we miss Hanotaux, Constans, Rouvier, Mercier, Périer, Baron Courcel, the French Ambassador at the Court of St. James, Baron Hirsch, and numerous others; in Germany, Von Boetticher, Dr. von Stephan, to whom international postage is largely due, Bebel, and Richter; in Russia, Witte, Stall, and the Procurator-General of the Holy Synod, Pobedonostzeff, whose influence has been so baleful for many years in the internal administration; in Italy, Rudini, Giolitti, and Villari; in Hungary, Dr. Wekerle; in Norway, Stang. It is impossible to follow the politics, domestic and foreign, of these nations without some knowledge of these men.

American politicians are possibly more numerously represented. We find the President and the members of the cabinet included. This feature seems an innovation, for many members of former cabinets do not appear, as witness Messrs. Boutwell, Endicott, Dickinson, C. and J. W. Foster, Elkins, Chandler, Goff, Bristow, Wanamaker, and the late Hugh McCulloch, who was almost as well

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known in London as in this country. A few Senators, two judges of the Supreme Court, and Messrs. McKinley and Wilson find mention — the latter out of compliment to the measures which bear their names. The late James G. Blaine and Benjamin F. Butler are reported in the body of this work as "Men of the Time." This posthumous existence is most noticeable among military men, and especially among Confederate generals, of whom we find Beauregard and J. E. Johnston still surviving in the text, as well as G. W. Cullum of the Union army.

Even for England there are notable omissions. There is a tendency to make prominent the writers of lighter prose and verse and to overlook authors of marked scholarship. We search in vain for F. W. H. Myers, W. J. Courthope, author of the 'History of English Poetry,' and the most prominent candidate for the Chair of Poetry at Oxford in succession to Francis T. Palgrave; F. H. Bradley the philosopher, D. G. Ritchie, W. M. Ramsay the archæologist, Sir W. H. Broadbent, Bart., the successor in medical fame to the late Sir Andrew Clark. American scholars and writers are mentioned with slight indication of their relative importance; and altogether passed over are Francis J. Child and Charles Eliot Norton of Harvard, George P. Fisher of Yale, Hiram Corson of Cornell, B. L. Gildersleeve, Remsen and Rowland of Johns Hopkins, and many others equally notable. Similarly, the historians Henry C. Lea, J. B. McMaster, James Schouler, Henry Adams, Henry Cabot Lodge, H. von Holst, Justin Winsor, John Fiske, and others are lacking. Several university presidents are admitted, but not Francis A. Walker, David Starr Jordan, or James B. Angell, whose diplomatic services alone would entitle him to mention. The artists Lafarge, Sargent, Chase, and numerous others are disregarded.

German scholars are, as a rule, ignored. It would be easy to select from every university names of the highest eminence which do not appear, such as Weiss, Pfleiderer, Harnack, Treitschke, Weber, and Wattenbach, from Berlin. Literary men fare no better, and hence we find no mention of C. F. Meyer, Herman Grimm, Paul Lindau, Rodenberg, Hauptmann, Wilbrandt, Blumenthal, Wichert, and others.

In general an effort has been made to keep the biographies proportionate, but in some cases, notably in those of English scientists, a discussion of scientific principles is often included in the statement of what the authors have accomplished.

The Telephone Systems of the Continent of Europe. By A. R. Bennett. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895.

WIDESPREAD dissatisfaction, according to the author of this treatise, has existed in Great Britain in regard to telephone rates, and he therefore determined to ascertain for himself what the telephone rentals are and what they include in the countries of Europe. With this purpose in view he made an exhaustive study of the telephone systems in these countries. With the exception of St. Petersburg and Moscow, where the rates are £25 per annum, no Continental rate equals the £20 rate which prevails in London. The English subscriber to a telephone service obtains for his money four services: (1) Local exchange intercourse; (2) internal trunk-line intercourse; (3) public telephone-station intercourse; (4) forwarding and receiving his telegrams by telephone (in some of the large towns only). Only one country, Portugal, has an inferior list of facilities; Italy has the same number; and all the rest enjoy superior advantages for a subscription which is often one-third less than the British. The author believes that rates of £2 10s. in the smaller and £5 in the larger towns are made remunerative on the Continent. With these facts in view, he discusses various plans for the reform of the present telephonic system in Great Britain. These plans cannot fail to be of interest to those who advocate Government control of the telegraph and telephone; yet one cannot help feeling that the author's former relations with the telephone companies in England have biassed his judgment.

The treatise also contains an account of the devices for facilitating telephonic intercourse peculiar to each country which he visited. The writer of this notice has seen in the offices of the American Bell Telephone Company a map of the United States on which all the existing telephone lines are indicated. The Eastern and Middle States on this map are heavily covered with the black lines which indicate the telephone routes. Other thickly covered regions exist about the great Western cities. The South and Southwest, however, show comparatively little use of the telephone. While one can say that such a map of the United States indicates where the greatest intellectual activity of the country exists, one could not draw such a conclusion from a similar map of Europe, for the use of the telephone in Great Britain is apparently more limited than in many of the smaller countries of Europe. Mr. Bennett's treatise lacks a good index.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adeney, Prof. W. F. The Song of Solomon and Lamentations. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Baxter, Sylvester. Boston Park Guide. Boston: The Author. 25 cents.

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